

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Volume XI.
Number 2.

PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1920.

\$2.00 a year.
25 cents a copy.

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Published monthly, except July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

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THE DECEMBER NUMBER of the *Historical Outlook*, both editorially and over the signatures of prominent teachers of history, reviews the progress of the ten years from 1909 to 1919. The Macmillan Company desires to call attention to certain of these comments, and to point out some of the contributions of its authors to the progress in historical institutions there noted.

EDITORIAL: "In the field of instruction in civics and government the important features of the decade are the increasing emphasis upon the function rather than the form of government; the development of the community idea, whether local or national; and the conscious preparation for intelligent citizenship."

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Morale Work in an Army Camp

BY PROFESSOR RALPH V. D. MAGOFFIN, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Morale is not a new thing. It was morale that carried a little army of a few thousand Greeks, after their commander had been killed and their higher officers treacherously slain, from near Babylon through millions of enemies and over thousands of miles of unknown and hostile Armenian mountains to Trebizond on the Black Sea, and from there on back to the Mediterranean. That was nearly four hundred years B. C. It was morale that animated the Roman senate not to despair of the Republic after the annihilation of their armies by Hannibal at the dire field of Cannæ. It was morale that brought a God-fearing commander and a devoutly patriotic little army through a Valley Forge winter; it was morale that helped the rail-splitter President over obstacles that seemed to be insuperable; it was morale that inspired the "Contemptibles" in their peerless retreat, that inspired the Anzacs at Gallipoli to weather unaccustomed freezing blasts as well as customary official blunders, and that inspired the French in their immortal defence at Verdun. No, morale is certainly no new thing.

At every critical period in the life of a nation there have flashed out under the stress of circumstances the very best and bravest actions in history. The force which brought out that nobility of action is nothing more nor less than morale. It is, however, only of late years that the cultivation of morale as a positive asset to a nation has been taken up seriously as a branch of science. It would appear that this was done first in Germany, but that it was not so much the cultivation of an inbred or idealistic morale as it was the premeditated injection of a morale for purposes of exploitation. The Prussian Junker since the Franco-Prussian War has recognized that the Teutonic temperament needed an artificial stimulus to become as bloodthirsty in its warlike mood as suited the Prussian, and so various methods were employed of putting into the stolid and phlegmatic Germans a fighting morale, whether backed by morals and ideals or not. This type of morale was and is essentially dishonest, and it is quite certain that the breakdown of the German spirit was due to fundamental dishonest morale and to the utter lack of a real ideal when once the great German trinity of fear, expediency and annihilation had fallen prone, like the false idols that they were.

With the progress of the World War it became

increasingly clear that there was a necessity for systematic and organized morale work. In the first place, armies and states are now too large to be influenced by the spirit which comes from direct personal contact; in the second place, because insidious enemy propaganda was recognized in the defeats of the Italians and Russians and in the careful wavering of Bulgaria and Greece, and was finally detected in the pacifistic, anti-British, and Zimmermann note varieties in the United States; and in the third place, because the realization came that an honestly directed stimulation of patriotism and will to win enhanced the individual effectiveness of soldier and citizen, and that it thus became an immediate mighty organized force and would later develop into a splendid national asset.

The teaching and instillation of morale of a type that would secure the efficiency, contentment, and well-being of the soldier was therefore begun under military direction in the armies of the English, French and Italians, that being the foundation on which was easily built up a structure the materials of which were strong and solid and worthy, strong in that a knowledge of the reasons for the war and the existence of the army was universally disseminated, solid in that an unbreakable determination to win in a just cause was this engendered, and worthy in that the loftiest ideals were strengthened, not weakened, by the subjective and objective contemplation of life and death.

Now at first when there began to be talk about the introduction of morale work in the American army, the *Regular* officer began to see red. That was of course a psychological reflex to what he thought was a stab at and a slur upon his military capacity, and his irritation was shared by many unreflecting civilians, whose pride and vanity were shocked at the suggestion that the effectiveness of an American soldier could be increased. But when the results of morale work in the armies of our allies were known, when it was realized how many millions of men were involved who really were a unit in but one thing, namely, the unanimous and uncomplaining response to the draft, and when the separation of component parts of divisions and the continuous replacements drained from every company, which brought to the training officers the hopeless feeling that Sisyphus once had, were seen to be not only authorized but necessary, then morale work was recognized as inevitable. (See General Orders, No. 94, at end of article.)

When our soldiers began to go to France in such great numbers in the summer of 1918, the first organizations were those with the greatest number or admixture of men with fighting morale already in them, men of the regular army or of the militia who had seen service, or national army soldiers with the longest training. Their fighting morale was sure to grow when they got at death grips with the enemy. But the things we now know more about, such as the jealousies, petty rivalries, and the unevenness of spirit in the men in front line trenches, in rest and training areas, all show how much better off individually the overseas army would have been had it enjoyed the added stimulation which properly conducted morale work gives.

The authorization of the Morale Branch of the General Staff dates as of October 19, 1918, which was less than one month before the war was brought to a stop by the signing of the armistice. In that one month, however, much was accomplished. Plans already formulated were put into effect, morale officers were sent to or designated in the various camps and cantonments, and the machinery of a new branch in the army began to work. The sudden stop of things on November 11, 1918, threw the belt off the flywheel, but it was not long before it was clear that the machinery installed by the Morale Branch would have a very steady and absorbing effect on men who seemingly had lost their jobs suddenly, but who had to go on working anyhow until a new job offered. So the belt was slipped on again and the throttle wheel whirled clear out.

There is a distinct difference to be borne in mind between the kind of morale for, and the way of inspiring it in, soldiers in a camp who are soon to be sent thousands of miles away to the fighting area, and the kind of morale which has to be inspired and maintained in a camp among soldiers during demobilization. Unless one has experienced the thing, it is almost impossible to realize the sudden depression of spirit, let-down of energy, and entire loss of enthusiasm which came hard upon the armistice. The army, officers and men, simply flopped, and for a few days an officer could look with tolerance upon a sloppiness of manner and general appearance in his boys because he felt the same way himself. And then there came a swift realization that now more than ever morale work was an absolute necessity in the various camps.

Camps and cantonments, cities, that is to say, built of canvas tents or wooden barracks, had grown to larger proportions than at first intended, and all sorts of new organizations of personnel, and of successive organizations of camp administration had created many problems. One or two fighting divisions had been trained at a camp and sent away, leaving behind some men who were unfit and others who were not equipped; a new division was beginning to come in, and the commanders were trying to get things to which they were not entitled; a camp quartermaster outfit attached to the camp were sore because they were not in the overseas detachment; a new construc-

tion division group was fighting to uphold the authority of a newly formed division at Washington; a new salvage group was making everybody mad by their regulations which seemed to be changed every few days; a large detachment was at the remount station who had curried mules until they were ready to cry with vexation; there were scores of schools for butchers, bakers and electric light makers which called for the making of yet other thousands of personnel qualification cards; there were labor battalions, ice-cream plants, hospitals, garden patches, German prisoners, and last but not least, growing Development Battalions; and all these were to be made happier while being disciplined, or were to be taught patience and a trade while being demobilized, or were to be held together while being scrapped. It got almost to the point where a soldier thought it a more honorable death to be run over by a laundry truck or a fire wagon than by one of the numberless headquarters motorcycles.

Morale work for the army camps was conceived on the broad basis which had as its purpose the general raising of the efficiency and contentment of the individual soldier whether in time of war or of peace, it being understood of course that the purpose of the morale work of the General Staff in time of peace was to make the individual "first, most receptive to psychological stimulation in the event of war; and second, to render the army as representative as may be of the standards and ideals of the country whose armed vital force it represents." Now it soon was clear that in an army camp during demobilization to spend time on the first of those propositions was both untimely and unfruitful, but it was just as clear that work along the second line was imperative, that it deserved co-operation, and that if it got it, success would follow.

The writer of this article had the opportunity to see something of how morale work was handled in several camps, but he draws his illustrations from the work in that camp where he was for a time Camp Morale Officer, after he left General McCain's Twelfth Division Staff at the signing of the armistice.

The morale officer and his work were much more welcome after the armistice than before. Those officers who were in command of troops knew that their men would be discharged in due time, knew that most of them were eager to be discharged at once; in some cases they found no alacrity in obeying orders or an undercurrent of sullenness that betokened a feeling of resentment against the officer and the government as if both were conspiring to delay his discharge, which was expressed in a sort of Wait-till-I-get-back-to-be-a-voter attitude. An army officer had always put spirit into his men through drill and insistence on obedience and discipline. He also had a good army tradition, he had his own personality, a variable quantity to be sure, and he had a government in which the men believed. But here were situations not covered by army regulations, here were men no longer responsible to the traditional type of stimulation, men eager to be no longer amenable either to obedience or dis-

cipline. Something had to be substituted for the morale which was meant to make a man only a fighter.

It was recognized that there were different degrees of morale, and that even isolated cases of very poor morale had a stronger effect on a given body of men than a larger percentage of men whose morale was good. It was also clear enough that the deep-seated causes of grievances of individuals would be hard to get at. But the fundamental considerations were in the main the same whether war or demobilization or peace was the objective. Obedience and discipline had to be maintained; a new outlet had to be found for the expression both of physical and mental energy; new ideas had to be disseminated, which could stand being brought before the tribunal of a barracks, rough house or a chow table; satisfactory reasons had to be on tap for any honest inquiry or complaint; and a spirit of self-sacrifice, a feeling of responsibility, a knowledge of previous reconstruction periods, and a higher ideal of personal service to society in a social and moral sense and to the nation in an economic and a political sense had to be translated into ideas that would challenge the attention, gain the approval and enlist the active interest of every soldier.

Obedience and discipline were brought up sharply. There was a rumor went round the country that the soldiers in the camps were likely to mutiny. There was never the least occasion in any camp to give grounds for such a rumor. The men all appreciated that obedience and discipline were salutary and necessary, and they respected the officers who got it, and were proud of the organizations where it was the highest. There was so much saluting under some unintelligent camp commanders that it became both tiresome and funny, there was too much of the "Fall in, Fall out" methods of the over-officious officer just up from the ranks or the undertrained officer who did not know what else to do, there were the many hardships that could be and were imposed by the occasional—I am glad to say—spiteful and petty martinet who was out to "get somebody." But any shortening of drills was made up by snappiness, and the hint or criticism of many a morale officer was justified by the results obtained.

New outlets for the expression of physical and mental energy were found. More camp athletics were made possible, and special attention was paid to individuals by the athletic directors and their assistants, who had always been eager to give all they had, but the co-operation of the military authorities had often left much to be desired. The number and kind of books taken from the buildings of the American Library Association and read, after a little more time was available and a bit more incentive given, became a matter of special amazement. The mass singing on the drill ground, the formation of orchestras and bands, the establishment of schools where work was not an extra but part of the regular day's soldierly duty, the opportunities to see informative movies at the halls and huts, all these were outlets which proved themselves valuable and satisfactory.

New ideas were disseminated among both officers and men. They were told why the United States was at war. Many of them had as yet no idea why, beyond the fact that their country had called them. They were told how overseas troops were chosen, the replacement and the training methods were explained to them, they were amazed, and much more contented, when they found that 61% of the officers of the regular army had not been sent overseas. They were convinced that being left behind was an honor, not a disgrace, and that what they were doing was just as important and just as necessary and just as creditable as what someone else was doing on the other side. It was hard luck that they were not among those sent over, and it was hard luck that the Germans had laid down just when we were "going good," but the American is a good loser when his hard luck is shown to him in a proper way. Nobody could go up against my story of an army acquaintance who, as the best horseman in our camp, was sent over to take charge of a remount depot, and who got mislaid some way at Brest, and who shoveled, and sacked, and hustled raw onions for the rest of the war.

Satisfactory reasons were given to the men who had honest inquiries or complaints to make. Lectures and talks of every kind were given to groups of younger officers and of non-commissioned officers, and things they could not answer satisfactorily were brought on to more competent authority immediately, and a question once raised that had any bearing on a man's state of mind was settled, not deferred or dismissed. Some of the inquiries and complaints which were satisfactorily answered had to do with lack of general co-operation and good fellowship; with discontent arising from poor food, delayed pay or mail, ill-fitting clothing, vermin-infested barracks, profiteering by merchants in towns near camp, partiality, inefficient management of post exchange or camp laundry; with rumors or gossip; with maladjustments; with downheartedness caused by home conditions, or homesickness, or lack of interest; and with problems arising from political, religious, or racial propaganda. Nor do I remember more than one or two cases where the inquiries or complaints were of an unjustifiable or an unanswerable character.

To try to inculcate a spirit of self-sacrifice, to try to engender a feeling of responsibility, to give a knowledge of previous reconstruction periods in the world's history, and to try to incite to higher ideals of personal service were matters of careful and constant, of thoughtful and prayerful consideration. Results could be felt, but they could not be handled; they could be seen, but not measured. None the less, that kind of work was done by the better equipped and the more earnest of the morale officers, and a few weeks sufficed to raise materially the tone of many a camp.

The majority of the things which concerned the morale officer have now been discussed. There yet remains something to be said about the Development Battalion.

Some person who had recognized the value of

"what's in a name," having seen how the word "draft" was disliked, and how devious are the ways of well meant nomenclature, gave to his pet idea a name which should tell its own story, a name which had no sinister connections or evil connotations, "Development Battalion" ought to have succeeded, but it did not. Everybody who was sent to one considered himself a derelict, stranded more eternally and to be buffeted more rudely than even a soldier relegated to the Depot Brigade. In our camp was a Development Battalion of 10,000 men, 3,000 of whom could not even speak English. The officers—the nicest set of men one could possibly find—were pessimistic, downhearted, some even brokenhearted. Many men were lame, halt, and blind, and I speak advisedly, because the feet of several pointed backwards, hundreds carried canes and went to their daily exercise so slowly that they were called the Caterpillar Brigade, and one at least never tired of telling how he got by the medical officers with his one glass eye, and what a fool he now realized he was. Many more had dropped a class or two in physical qualifications, because of venereal disease. Some were white pacifists, some were yellow, and 3,000 were Italians, Poles, Yids, Russians, Armenians, and other foreigners, who could not speak English, and seemed not to have the faintest idea what it was all about. All of them wanted to go home. Some were ineligible because of regulations and others deserved the fulfillment of an American promise of equal opportunity to all comers. Certainly if not a chosen, they were at least a choice, lot.

But it has never been my privilege to see more cordial backing by headquarters authority, or better co-operation among the secretaries of welfare organizations than in connection with the work with this development battalion, nor could anyone ask for a better response than was obtained from officers and men of a battalion. Discipline was jacked up by camp headquarters in an effective and sensible way, and the men from the American Library Association, Jewish Welfare Board, Knights of Columbus, Liberty Theatre, Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, and War Camp Community Service vied with each other in offering themselves, their buildings and their equipment for the work. Five thousand men were marched to the Liberty Theatre, and stirring addresses on the Principles of the United States Government, the Defense of Liberty and the Blessings of Law and Order, the Equality of Opportunity and of Responsibility, America—the Refuge for the Oppressed, Readjustment and Reconstruction after the War and others of like tenor were given, interspersed with orchestra music, audience singing, and short speeches from officers who the men had supposed were too lofty even to look at them. The longer addresses were translated into five foreign languages and delivered to those men who understood only those tongues. The facilities in the English school were enlarged, a score of constructive programs were arranged. Within two weeks the progress was remarkable, and by the end of a month scores of men had regained their self-

respect, other scores had got back to their original physical classification, and the whole atmosphere of that part of the camp had changed. There was no longer doubt that morale had been made a tangible asset.

The Chief of the Morale Branch of the General Staff is Colonel (formerly Brigadier-General) E. L. Munson, and the General Order No. 94 of October 19, 1919, which created the Morale Branch and defined its functions is as follows:

V. 1. There is hereby created a Morale Branch within the General Staff, which will be in charge of an officer designated as Chief, Morale Branch. It will be under the executive assistant to the Chief of Staff, and will operate in general conformance with orders governing the other branches of the General Staff.

2. The general functions of the Morale Branch relate to the improvement of the efficiency of the soldier through the betterment of morale.

3. The Morale Branch shall have cognizance and control of the following:

a. The initiation and administration of plans and measures to stimulate and maintain the morale of troops.

b. The organization, training, co-ordination, and direction of all agencies, military and civil, operating within military zones, in so far as they serve to stimulate and maintain morale in the army.

c. Co-operation with any morale agencies of the general staffs of allied countries in connection with military morale.

d. The supervision, co-ordination, and direction of activities in the various departments, corps, and bureaus of the army for stimulating morale within their organizations or among producers of munitions.

e. The supervision, co-ordination, and utilization, so far as may be properly accomplished by military authority, of all recognized civilian agencies which might contribute, directly or indirectly, to the enhancement of morale. To this end close relations will be established through the Third Assistant Secretary of War as Director of Civilian Relations by the Morale Branch with all officially recognized agencies for the improvement of morale in the army and nation. It will not give official recognition to unrecognized voluntary agencies, though treating them with respect and consideration.

f. The disbursing of and accounting for morale funds.

4. Direct communication by and with the Morale Branch on all matters concerning morale is authorized.

In his article, "An Australian Plea for Emancipation from Ireland" (*National Review* for November), Editor James Edwards, of the *Sidney Bulletin*, takes the position that the Irish would be of less menace to the peace of Europe were it possible to consider them in the light of undesirable aliens who could be deported when occasion presented.

Virginia's Historical Laboratory

BY MORGAN P. ROBINSON, STATE ARCHIVIST OF VIRGINIA.

In the fall term of 1916, there was worked out in Richmond, Virginia, an interesting experiment in the use of state archives. Students of history in the vicinity of state libraries, or other collections of historical material, may find it worth while to survey for a few moments the purpose and the results of the program initiated by the undersigned, in his then capacity of archivist of the Virginia State Library, and by the Department of History of Westhampton College. The arrangement came about as the result of the desire of the archivist, to interest students of history in the vast collection of manuscripts, classified and unclassified, which is deposited in the Virginia archives, and to obtain the assistance of a group of "archival apprentices" in the task of making this material accessible to the modern historian as rapidly as possible. A second motive of no less importance was the desire of the Professor of History of Westhampton College to give advanced students an opportunity to handle original sources and to acquire first-hand information as to the means and the methods of the writing of history.

The "archival apprentices" of the Virginia State Library are those members of the junior and senior history classes of Westhampton College—the woman's college co-ordinated with Richmond College, Va.—who elect to use the Department of Archives and History of the Virginia State Library as a "historical laboratory." This use of the department is under an agreement between the State Library Board of Virginia and the college authorities, whereby any student of the two classes named may work in the department, and is allowed by the college faculty a "laboratory credit" on history for two hours a week of original work and practical investigation amongst the various classifications of archival material—just as is done in the cases of chemistry, physics, botany, etc. The State Library Board of Virginia authorized such an agreement, available to seniors only, at its meeting of April 5, 1916; and the first class of "archival apprentices"—one of whom is now doing work at the University of Chicago—started work on October 6 of that year—there being only two in the class. As the undersigned subscribes to the theory that neither efficiency nor clearness is promoted by multifarious rules and regulations, there are but two rules—one that each apprentice must wear, while on duty, a full apron up to the throat, down over the cuffs, and over the hem of the skirt—the object being to save as fully as possible the clothes of the apprentice from that insidious dust, which is an ever-present nuisance amongst unworked papers—and thus prevent complaint from the parents that the work is too hard on the clothes of the apprentices. The other rule is that each apprentice must herself decide what index, check-list, calendar, journal, or other reference-book may be necessary to identify a certain document, or

to solve the problem under consideration—thus obviating the necessity of having an assistant to look after the wants of the apprentice, and, at the same time, giving to the apprentices a bit of contact with the practical, inside working of a library.

The college authorities very wisely made the course elective, with the result that the number of apprentices has been largely influenced by their respective schedules of lectures, while the days and hours of each apprentice in the department have been almost wholly determined by said schedules. This elective feature placed the work on a voluntary basis, which at once inspired confidence, and has gained a rapidly increasing number of apprentices, as is evidenced by the fact that the class of 1916-17 was composed of two; that of 1917-18, of twelve; and that of the session closed in June, of twenty-one.

When a class reports for duty at the opening of the session, the archivist explains to them how archives come about, what they are, their use, their value, etc.—at the same time practically illustrating how the various classifications of material about the archives room can be, and are, used; while a list of the classifications in the department is submitted, with the suggestion that each apprentice select the subject, or the classification of material, that seems most to her taste, that is most closely related to her actual college work, or that may be most congenial; in other words, the elective system, pure and simple. The student, however, must talk over with her professor of history the subject of her selection before making the selection definitely, which selection, however, may at any time be changed or amended, in order to relieve drudgery from an uncongenial, or otherwise undesirable selection. In addition, there are assigned for reading and study copies of Leland's "The National Archives: A Programme," which appeared in the *American Historical Review*, October, 1912; Fitzpatrick's "Notes on the Care, Cataloguing, Calendarizing and Arranging of Manuscripts," and Virtue's "Principles of the Classification of Archives" in *Annals of Iowa*, April, 1915.

The first class of two started its work by "identifying" (ascertaining the year, month and day on which presented, and the county or city from which presented) a confused mass of petitions to the General Assembly of Virginia, dating anywhere between 1776 and 1865. Frequently, there was not a suspicion of a date, the only clue being the subject matter of the petition, which subject matter then had to be trailed through the various histories of the state, or through the authorities on the subject petitioned for, until there was some clue which would furnish a starting-point in either the *Acts of Assembly* or in the *Journal of the House* (or of the Senate) for a certain session, though these volumes frequently offered but little assistance, as the indexing of them does not

begin until the session of 1835-36, and then is usually done only in the most indifferent manner. However, from those petitions which had all the necessary data correctly endorsed upon them, and therefore required but a few minutes for identification, the extreme case noted was one which required three and one-half laboratory periods—seven hours; but was finally identified, in spite of the fact that there was no suspicion of a date, or of the member by whom presented; and only a confused, or rather, a non-specific and indeterminate subject-matter. The class of 1917-18—at which time the privilege had been extended to the juniors—consisted of twelve and worked on the same class of material, with the result that the two classes identified a total of nineteen hundred and seventy-eight petitions.

The class of 1918-19, the start of whose work was delayed until the middle of December, on account of the influenza epidemic, consisted of twenty-one, and the members took up various classes of work, covering sketches of the administrations of nine Governors of Virginia, which sketches were based upon the Executive Papers, the Executive Communications, and the Executive Journals of those administrations; seven prepared essays with a view to development into histories of that number of counties, based upon the Personal Property Books of those counties, 1782-1863; the Petitions from those counties to the General Assembly, 1774 to 1863, and such other classifications of material as might throw light upon the subject; two took general courses in archival training, and one worked up a study of "Rumsey and the First Steamboat," based upon the original Rumsey papers in the department.

If the apprentice selects, say, the administration of one of the Governors of Virginia, and undertakes to flatfile and arrange the "Executive Papers" while working up such phase of the history of that administration as may be under consideration, the archivist suggests general reading *in re* said administration, and more specific reading concerning the more important policies or achievements thereof; and, when it is remembered that there are fifteen counties in the present state of Virginia, concerning which the Virginia State Library has no separate title, it is most pleasing that a goodly number of the apprentices are turning to the preparation of county histories, based upon the personal property books, the land books, the petitions from those counties to the General Assembly, the parish registers, county records, etc., and one can readily see how advantageous it is to be able to utilize the working of the archives hand-in-hand with the writing of the history of the state.

The college authorities require a "report" (essay) on the work at the end of the junior year, while a graduation thesis goes into greater detail and into more analytical ramifications the following session; and the apprentice at the same time has a basis which is oftentimes capable of development into a thesis for a Ph.D.

The archivist at the end of each session makes to the professor of history a report upon the activities of the session, a copy of the report for the session 1918-'19 being appended, with the exception of the fact that the names of the apprentices do not appear, but in their place the first twenty-one letters of the alphabet are used:

	TWO-HOUR PERIODS REGISTERED:					SUBJECT:	SOURCES USED*	PIECES FILED
	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apl.			
Misses A	1	4	4	1	3	2	15 Madison County History	9 P.* and 54 Petitions
Misses B	1	3	5	1	2	2	14 Culpeper County History	11 P. and 213 Petitions
Misses C†	1	3	5	1	4	1	15 Gov. Henry A. Wise	Executive Papers
Misses D‡	1	4	4	2	4	4	19 Henry and Jefferson	Executive Papers
Misses E	1	4	4	1	2	4	16 Chesterfield County History	18 P. and 251 Petitions
Misses F	1	4	5	General Course	Authorities Assigned
Misses G	4	4	2	6	.	16 Nottoway County History	8 P. and 40 Petitions
Misses H§	1	4	3	2	3	2	15 Gov. Pierpoint	Executive Papers
Misses I	1	2	4	2	2	2	13 Gov. Monroe	Executive Papers
Misses J‡	1	4	3	.	3	9	20 Henry and Jefferson	Executive Papers
Misses K¶	1	4	3	2	5	2	17 Gov. Henry (2d)	Executive Papers
Misses L	3	4	2	4	3	16 Surry County History	9 P. and 44 Petitions
Misses M	1	3	3	2	2	2	13 Rumsey Steamboat	Rumsey Papers & Assignments....
Misses N	1	2	3	1	3	5	15 Giles County History	8 P. and 132 Petitions
Misses O	4	2	.	2	1	9 Hanover County History	15 P. and 167 Petitions
Misses P	1	3	3	2	3	1	13 General Course	Authorities Assigned
Misses Q§	4	3	2	1	2	12 Gov. Pierpoint	Executive Papers
Misses R	3	3	2	2	4	14 Gov. Letcher	Executive Papers	
Misses S†	1	5	4	2	2	3	17 Gov. Henry A. Wise	Executive Papers
Misses T	4	3	2	1	2	12 Gov. Randolph	Executive Papers
Misses U¶	1	5	4	2	6	1	19 Gov. Henry (2d)	Executive Papers
Totals	14	72	71	31	61	56	305	973

* "P" means personal property books of the county indicated, the number of volumes usually covering from 1782-1863.

† ‡ § ¶. The pairs marked by these symbols worked together.

More About the Working Museum of History

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD CARLTON PAGE, NORTHERN ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, DE KALB, ILL.

Whether safe to do so or not, we shall assume that most of our readers have at least a cursory knowledge of the articles on a working museum of history published during the past two or three years in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE. The task for us today thus would seem to be to amplify ideas already given some degree of publicity, and perhaps to illustrate those ideas by some recent concrete experiences.

That we have a museum of history at the Northern Illinois State Normal School is not a particularly startling fact. At least, it should not be. For, if it be conceded that museums have educative value, normal schools above all others should endeavor to have them. We fear, however, a census of the normal schools of the United States would reveal very few as having any collection deserving the name of museum of history.

Judging from the comments of visitors and from correspondence from all over the United States prompted by hearing of our museum, we judge that whatever there may be of the unusual in our undertaking consists (1) in the sort of material we seek, (2) in the manner in which we acquire it, and (3) in the extent of the use to which we put it.

First, then, as to the sort of material we are gathering. Anything is "grist for our mill," provided it shows in any way how men have met the problems which have confronted them and have solved or attempted to solve those problems. So the age of an object does not of itself determine its value for a museum. Some article used by our "contemporary ancestors" in other regions, by which they endeavor to accomplish something we ourselves are trying to do, may throw a sidelight upon the process, and may thus acquire great historical value. For instance, a collection of various sorts of footwear from different countries of to-day will teach as much history as a series of such articles running back through the centuries.

It will readily be seen we have no place for mere curios or freaks. Such things frequently come our way. Occasionally we have to accept them for fear of offending a well-meaning but not discriminating donor. We then give them as inconspicuous a place as possible, and never call attention to them except when the donor or his friends are around. Usually we can refuse them without offense by explaining that they do not fit into the needs of our particular department. Occasionally they are of such a nature as to serve some use in some other department. In that case, we accept them and indicate that we shall turn them over to the department where most needed.

Personalia are of varying degrees of value. A flower and a bit of drapery from the funeral car of General Grant or a piece of the cedar tree in which was the eagle's nest which gave occasion for Margaret Fuller's poem, "Ganymede to His Eagle," seem

to us of comparatively slight value. But a square of wall-paper which was on a room in a house in New Hampshire when Washington spent a night in the room, or a wool spinning-wheel, which was once owned by the Custis family, are of value not merely because of their former association with Washington, but also because each reveals something of former times.

We would like to have an Egyptian pyramid out in the meadow on our campus, an old Greek temple to use for a social building, and a Roman triumphal arch as an entrance from Lincoln Highway. But really they would not be nearly as useful to us as a reaping-hook, a McCormick reaper, a Marsh harvester, and a self-binder. The one series of objects would show how some portion of a community accomplished some of its ideals. But the other series shows something of the evolution of the process by which the mass of the people have struggled to provide themselves with more and better food—a fundamental of life. Besides, we can never have a pyramid, but we do have the series of implements and other schools may have them.

What we are trying to say is that the everyday life of the average man is what interests us most of all in history. Consequently, those articles which have been used by the average man in his everyday life appeal to us most mightily. It may be only a shattered fire-stick or a crude tinder-box, but what a wonderful illumination they cast upon that wearisome way along which man has toiled from that wonderful day when someone stood, a man above all other men, master of one of the greatest agencies of God's creation, on down through the countless ages to the present when men so easily use fire in so many ways to accomplish their multifarious purposes.

We seek mostly the things of everyday life not simply because they reveal that sort of life, but because they are obtainable to a greater or less extent by anyone. We would build up a museum which will encourage others to go and do likewise. All may not have at their disposal the cases and space that we have, consequently they may not be able to accumulate as many articles as we may, but they will find all about them the same sort of material. We endeavor to impress upon our students the fact that one article of the right sort is a start toward a museum, and that a second article marks a gain of one hundred per cent. over the start. We are very glad to know that several normal schools and high schools and even some elementary schools are following our example, and are acquiring considerable collections.

Some of our friends think we are foolish to encourage the formation of other museums, saying they will get some of the material we might otherwise get. But we are not concerned principally in the accumulation of a great collection at DeKalb. What we are

chiefly interested in is the promotion of the museum idea. That is, we want as many teachers as possible to make such collections as are attainable, and then to use them to the limit. As far as our own collection is concerned, as long as material comes our way at the rate of about a thousand separate items a year, why worry?

Now as to obtaining our material. In the first place, we buy practically nothing. We did spend a dollar for a Babylonian clay tablet, because it added a useful number to our series on the evolution of writing, and because we probably could not get it in any other way. We did pay fifty cents for several unusual specimens of Confederate currency, discovered in the window of a New Orleans curio shop, because they would profitably increase our variety of that sort of money. In only a very few other trifling cases have we made purchase.

Why do we not buy material? For one reason, because we have no fund for doing so, though we imagine that difficulty could be removed in an emergency. For another reason, because, if we began buying the sort of material we are particularly seeking, we would soon be flooded with a lot of offers of worthless stuff. Besides, we could never get anything without buying. But our principal reason for this course of action is to demonstrate what can be done without money and without price. With the exception of our Asiatic department (China, Korea, Japan, the Philippines), we have had no unusual opportunity to acquire material. Yet in a little over four years we have obtained articles, great and small, numbering up into the thousands. What we have done anyone can do. For, let us repeat, we have used no money, and (with the one exception noted) we have had no peculiar advantages.

How do we do it? In various ways—principally by keeping our eyes open and by getting after the things seen. We have the museum constantly in mind, and we try to cultivate in ourselves quickness in perceiving the historical utility of things about us. The consequence is we are constantly picking up material which is useful to us.

Permit us to make the matter clearer by a few concrete experiences just as they chance to come to mind. While writing these very paragraphs, we stopped to empty a waste-paper basket. On top was a document-disappearing paper, which we instinctively glanced at to see if something of value may not have found its way into the refuse by mistake. The document turned out to be a passport which had expired and had been thrown away by a friend from China who has been visiting us. Here is an actual passport to vitalize a portion of the work in civics. It is signed by a well-known man (Wm. J. Bryan), adding a distinguished autograph to our collection. It is impressed with the great seal of the United States, something which most of us see only in picture form. On the back it is endorsed in Russian and bears a Russian stamp or seal. It was mighty lucky that we glanced into that basket.

One day in talking to a conductor friend, we noted

fingers missing from his right hand. As we surmised, it was the work of the old link-and-pin hand-coupler. We were prompted to think that these couplers would soon disappear from the earth. So we appealed to the traffic department of the Northwestern Railway to put one in our museum. They very readily and cheerfully responded. But it took the yard-man in Chicago six weeks to find one.

A short time ago, while in an Ogle County town, we were walking past a log cabin which we knew to be a relic of the earliest settlements in that vicinity. We remarked to a friend that we wished we could move that old log cabin to our campus. He said, "Of course that is impossible, but maybe there are old things in there to interest you." As he owned the cabin, we went in and there we found, among other things, an old dulcimer, which very shortly was crated and sent to us. A friend in DeKalb, seeing the dulcimer, went home and found in his attic a zither, which he brought to us. Now the head of our music department has at his command two kinds of instruments which are disappearing from use, but which enable him to make clear to his pupils the evolution of the piano and the type-difference between the piano and the harpsichord.

Just one more incident. One day we saw a brief mention in the newspaper of an old mole-plow, used in the early days for sub-soiling. It was owned by a lady at Ladd. Immediately we wrote to her and also to the superintendent of schools at Ladd, who was one of our graduates. He immediately went to see the lady in our behalf. She said the Field Museum had just offered her twenty-five dollars for the plow. He remarked to her that he did not believe she cared to make money out of the relic. He said she should seek to place it where it would do the most good, and that was at DeKalb, in the county which was the first in the country to employ an agricultural expert and where hundreds of young teachers would see it every year. She was easily persuaded, and we secured the plow, even transportation paid.

We have abandoned all superfluous modesty in asking for things we want, when we see them. We take the ground that the normal school is a public institution, and that it is everybody's business to help promote its interests. Consequently, when we ask for contributions to the museum we are not asking a personal favor, but are seeking co-operation in a public enterprise. We could recount many instances where such an appeal has wrought its purpose.

The HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE of December, 1915, gives in detail the various ways in which we put our museum to use, so that it is veritably what we call it, a working museum of history. It is not our purpose to go over that ground again to-day. We content ourselves with a few recent experiences selected rather at random.

Just before the recent election we arranged a special exhibit throwing light upon past presidential elections. Among other things, we had a portable wall-case well filled with campaign badges, emblems, etc., some of them going back as far as 1840. One of

them was a ballot actually used in the election of Jefferson Davis as president of the Confederacy. To our mind, it was clearly the most valuable of all the lot. We offered a prize of honorable mention in general session to those picking out the most valuable specimen. The consequence has been that large numbers of students have carefully studied the collection.

The taking of museum material into the classrooms of the elementary schools has stimulated the interest of many of the pupils to visit the museum for themselves. This visitation, by individuals and by little groups, we not only allow, but encourage. The children come unattended and wander about at will. Sometimes we casually call their attention to some particular thing or explain something that seems to puzzle them. We encourage them to come to us with questions. The result is that, with quite a band of boys and girls, we have ceased to be a "professor in the big school," and have become a sort of big brother or chum.

But, we hear it said, such interest is only curiosity aroused by the unusual. Well, we presume it is in some cases. There is always an unsaved remnant. But we know it is not so in all cases. Many boys and girls watch their history, geography, and reading lessons with great keenness, and then search and study the museum to see if there is anything to illustrate those lessons. Children, even down in the intermediate grades, show surprising alertness in discerning the material adapted to their purposes.

Do we loan articles to the children without the requisition of the teacher? Most certainly. Why not? The sense of discovery and contribution is greatly stimulating to them. They almost quarrel for the privilege of exhibiting and explaining the articles to the class. We overheard one urchin saying, "Gee, I hope teacher doesn't know about this." We see to it (on the quiet) that "teacher" does not know too much. One day when they were reading some pioneer story, two third-graders came over and borrowed one of our ox-yokes. We learned afterwards of the glee with which they got down on all fours in the schoolroom and put their necks under the yoke in order to show to their fellows how it was used.

In one of the schools there are some boys from untoward surroundings, belated in their education, who are slow in their work and sometimes hard to manage. The unsanctified have dubbed them "rough necks." Two of them, in particular, have taken great and intelligent interest in the museum and visit it very frequently. We were warned to look out for them, for they would be rough and injure things, and they would be sure to steal things. We resented the warning, for we had faith in the boys. We not only did not take pains to watch them, but rather we took pains to leave them alone. We also loaned them material to take to the Training School. Not an article has been injured. Not an article has been stolen.

In passing, we may remark that in the four years and a half since we first established the museum, only

one article has been lost—a modern Chinese primer, and we have a duplicate of that—and only one thing has been broken—an Indian bone knife, and that was easily repaired. These facts are true notwithstanding the museum is wide open all the time, five hundred normal students and hundreds of training school pupils have unrestrained access to it constantly, and many strangers visit it almost daily, at one time as many as five hundred in a single day. We have no attendants to watch them.

To return to our so-called bad boys. We have overheard these very boys reprimand others who, they thought, were handling some things too roughly. They also enjoined quiet upon the others, and were big enough to enforce it. Better yet, they have been instrumental in making useful additions to the museum, and their names are honored among the donors. The surprising thing is that their judgment as to what would be useful has been so generally correct. One of them, however, rather puzzled us one day by bringing us the rusty remnants of a common breech-loading shotgun, the stock all gone. We did not wish to disappoint his eager expectancy of approval, but what possible use could we make of such junk? Fortunately it flashed upon us that here was a chance to show the mechanism of such a weapon. So it has a prominent place in our department of weapons, duly labeled as a skeleton of one type of gun. And the donor's name is duly inscribed thereon.

But the best part of the story is yet to be told. One of the boys comes from a home of extreme poverty, where little of the joy of life is known. Not long ago his little sister had a birthday. He told his teacher that he had no money to buy his sister a birthday present, but he wondered if it would be all right to take her over the "Mr. Page's museum" to celebrate the day. When we saw him, cleaned up as best he knew how, conducting that little sister about as gently and gallantly as any knight ever could we must confess to a queer little gripping at our throat, and we thanked God that there was one door even a little ajar through which a shut-in soul could catch a glimpse of humanity's varied life.

We must close. It may readily be surmised that our museum is not far from where we do our work. In rooms near at hand and in corridors adjacent to our recitation rooms and our office, indeed in those very rooms themselves, to a degree shocking to our assistant, are to be found these our treasures. We are sorely in need of more space and we could find it at once in distant parts of the building. But we prefer to endure our present restrictions for a little while till more ample accommodations can be provided near at hand. We are endeavoring to make the working museum as integral a part of the department of history as the maps and charts, the pictures, the lantern, the blackboard, or any other of the equipment. To do this we must be in close proximity to it, indeed we must be in the very midst thereof.

The History Curriculum Since 1850

BY EDITH M. CLARK, EL RENO, OKLAHOMA.

To the lover of history the question naturally arises as to how long that subject has been taught in our schools, and how many courses have been offered. As a basis for the following discussion it should perhaps be stated that in an earlier paper an effort was made to discover the extent of the history course in the period 1800-1850, which established the fact that by the close of the period history had found a place in all classes of schools, but not all schools; that it was used frequently more as an interpreter of other studies, or as an incentive to patriotism through historical selections in the readers; and finally that the introduction of history, and more history into the curriculum was an evidence of the broadening view of the purpose of education and the extension of its functions.¹

This paper will carry the study to the present time, closing with a discussion of the reports of the Committee of Seven, in 1898, the Committee of Five in 1909, the Committee on "Social Studies in Secondary Education" in 1916, and the 1919 Committee on the "Study of History and Education for Citizenship." Since it would be impossible in the time or space allowable in a paper of this kind to follow out the course of study in all the states, New York and Massachusetts have been taken as examples of school development along reasonably conservative lines, and yet with the idea that they would show the progress of education as well as any other two states which might have been chosen.

The earlier paper dealt with the whole course in history, which was in its entirety not a very weighty affair before 1850. In this discussion the teaching of European history will be more particularly considered, although it is difficult at times to distinguish the European courses, and, too, the other courses must be mentioned for the sake of comparison. Since the history subject for the elementary schools was, during the formative period, American history,² and since it has pretty generally remained so, this discussion will be more concerned with secondary and college education.

As was stated in the earlier paper, information concerning what was really taught in the schools is frequently unavailable, and the diligent seeker after the Massachusetts course of study, for example, is rewarded with numerous articles on "Corporal Punishment," "Truancy" and kindred subjects, but no courses of study. College catalogues are to be found so that a study of their curriculum development is not so difficult.

In general, in the secondary schools to 1860 we find foreign countries³ receiving more attention than

the United States. In 1862, one hundred and thirty-two out of two hundred and four academies in New York are listed as offering general history, this subject being more frequently listed than United States history.⁴ The committee appointed by the National Educational Association in 1876 recommended the "Requirement of United States History in the Elementary Schools and Universal History and the Constitution of the United States in the High Schools." The report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1886-1887 gives numerous statistics of public schools, showing the number studying certain courses, Latin, Greek, French, German, Free Hand and Mechanical Drawing, but no History.

TABLE A.
TABLE SHOWING TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE UNITED STATES COMMON SCHOOLS.⁵

Year of School .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Year of Life .	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
When History is Taught									U. S.	English	General	
									History	History	History	

Table A shows a well established history course certainly not all formulated within the year, so its omission in the 1886-7 report does not signify that history was not being taught. Again, in 1896-1897, we find 186,581 pupils in secondary schools studying history other than that of United States, an increase of 152% in ten years.*

TABLE B.

TABLE SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN 176 HIGH SCHOOLS STUDYING HISTORY OTHER THAN UNITED STATES HISTORY.⁷

Year	1890 and 1891	1891 and 1892	1892 and 1893	1893 and 1894	1894 and 1895	1895 and 1896	1896 and 1897	1897 and 1898	1898 and 1899	1899 and 1900
History other than U. S.	28.20	20.97	33.98	36.48	34.33	35.28	35.76	37.70	38.32	38.16

In Table B will be shown the percentage of students studying history other than that of United States for the period of 1890-1900 in 176 high schools.

To follow the story of history teaching in the New York academies is comparatively easy for the period before 1888, as the Reports of the New York Regents contain tabulated lists of texts used. Table C gives a summary of the history taught in these academies for the years 1858, 1868, 1878 and 1888.

For the following years the reports are made up by counties, and time and "patience" forbid going into these to find individual courses of study, but from 1888 the high schools have been more prominent and

* Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 129.

⁵ Report of U. S. Com. of Ed., 1888, p. 404.

⁶ Annual Report American Hist. Assn. for 1898, p. 430.

⁷ Dexter, "History of Education in the United States," p. 178.

¹ U. S. Bureau of Education Circ. of Inf., No. 2, p. 1, 1887.

² Johnson, "Teaching of History," p. 130.

³ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 131.

the committee reports to be discussed later, have undoubtedly exerted an influence on their courses of study, although the extent of this influence may well be questioned if we consider the statement of Mr. E. C. Rowe of the Michigan Central State Normal School.⁹ In 1905, in a study of the catalogues of twenty representative high schools, he found a total of forty-five different subjects offered, only seven being common to all, Latin, German, English, Algebra, Geometry, Physics and Chemistry; and only two, English and Algebra, were compulsory in all. This seems to show that even at that late day history had not entirely come into its own.

TABLE C.

TABLE SHOWING TEACHING OF HISTORY IN NEW YORK ACADEMIES.⁸

Year	1858	1868	1878	1888
Greek Antiquities	57	32	45	86
Roman Antiquities	71	60	68	111
General History	124	100	126	54
United States History	146	150	188	249
History of England	154
Total Number Academies	181	211	224	271
Total Number of Students ...	36,000	34,851	30,259	39,523

The "Massachusetts School Returns" are so voluminous that "wading through" them for a paper of this kind seems too difficult to undertake. In a careful examination of three hundred pages of the report for 1868, I gained only the following information. History was taught in New Bedford,¹⁰ but what history was not explained. Suffolk County gives a record of two histories among the seventeen books prescribed for use.¹¹ The Bradford High School course of study includes American history, English history, Greek and Roman history.¹² Marblehead High School taught in the third and fourth years "Universal History,"¹³ while Medford offered courses in ancient, modern and English history.¹⁴

The high school at first, at least in the East, was little more than a publicly supported Latin School of the old colonial type.¹⁵

But as secondary education developed and the idea of fitting for life became more firmly established, schools began trying experiments in the course of study.¹⁶ In Massachusetts we find Latin and General History included in the course of study,¹⁷ and history's place as an essential study was beginning to be strengthened by a widening recognition of it as a

requirement for entrance to college.¹⁸ The following extracts from the Boston course of study will show its development:

HISTORY IN BOSTON SCHOOLS, 1878 TO 1913.

Boston High School Course of Study.

- 1878.¹⁹ First Year. Ancient History.
 Second Year. Medieval History and Modern History begun.
 Third Year. Modern History.
Public Latin School.
 1878. First Year. Reading Tales of Ancient Greece.
 Second Year. Reading Lives of Famous Greeks.
 Third Year. Reading Lives of Famous Greeks.
 Fourth Year. History and Geography of Ancient Greece.
 Fifth Year. Reading Lives of Famous Romans. History and Geography of Ancient Rome.
 Sixth Year. History of Germany and France, with a review of their geography.
 Seventh Year. History of England, with a review of geography.
 Eighth Year. History of United States, with a review of geography.
 (Supplementary Studies.)
 General History, studied by periods.

Course of Study for High and Latin Schools.

- 1887.²⁰ First Year. History of Greece and Rome. 2 hours.
 Second Year. Medieval History. 2 hours.
 Third Year. Modern History. Civil Government of United States and Massachusetts.
 Fourth Year. History of some important period.
 1898.²¹ No course of study is given, but the list of textbooks for High and Latin Schools points to the fact that Greek, Roman, English, American and General History were taught, Myers' General History being generally mentioned.
 1908.²² First Year. Ancient History to the Fall of the Western Roman Empire.
 Second Year. Medieval and Early Modern History to A. D. 1700.
 Third Year. Modern European History.
 Fourth Year. Political History of United States or College Preparatory History.
 (Diploma awarded, the points offered for which must include at least three points in history.)

⁸ Annual Reports N. Y. Regents, 1858, 1868, 1878, 1888.⁹ *School Review*, Vol. 13, p. 411 (1905).¹⁰ 32d An. Rep. Mass. Bd. of Ed., p. 321.¹¹ 32d An. Rep. of Mass. Bd. of Ed., p. 31.¹² 32d An. Rep. Mass. Bd. of Ed., p. 51.¹³ 32d An. Rep. Mass. Bd. of Ed., p. 68.¹⁴ 32d An. Rep. Mass. Bd. of Ed., pp. 129-30.¹⁵ Dexter, "History of Education in United States," p. 172.¹⁶ Dexter, Op. Cit., p. 175.¹⁷ Martin, "Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System," p. 199.¹⁸ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 133.¹⁹ Boston School Com. Doc., 1878, No. 21, pp. 38-51.²⁰ Boston Report of School Com., 1887, Doc. No. 10.²¹ Boston Report of School Com., 1898, Doc. No. 8.²² Boston Report of School Com., 1908, Doc. No. 4.

Authorized Texts.

1913.²³ No course of study is given, but the authorized textbooks include Ancient, American, Medieval and Modern, and also General History.

After 1892 we find the report of the Committee of Ten,²⁴ making its influence felt in a demand for eight years of history, four in the grades and four in the high school. The elementary school was beyond the province of this committee, and the program proved difficult to apply even in high school. This conference led to several others all to consider the question of history in the secondary schools, the reports of which will be discussed in a later part of the paper.

From 1870 to 1895 colleges had been steadily extending the range of the history entrance requirements,²⁵ and in 1895, out of a total of four hundred and seventy-five universities and colleges investigated by the United States Bureau of Education, three hundred and six required American history, one hundred and twenty-seven general history, fifty-seven English history, nine state and local history, and one French and German history. The conditions were undoubtedly in part the source and in part the reflection of a larger interest in history in the high school. The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools Committee in 1895, and the Columbia Conference in 1896 laid down rules for establishing some degree of uniformity in the matter of entrance requirements, with the result of increasing in a marked degree the amount of historical instruction in high schools.²⁶

To discover the condition of history teaching in 1908, we have the report of Miss Sara A. Burstall,²⁷ of Manchester, England, who made a special study of history teaching at that time in America, her comments being of sufficient interest to merit a brief resume of her discussion. "History is taught universally, and throughout the whole range, in primary and secondary schools, in colleges and universities, and technological institutes, and even in the new trade schools of Manhattan and Boston. English is the only subject more pervasive. . . . In the Horace Mann Elementary School, Greek and Roman history are taught in the fifth grades. In the sixth, Middle Ages and Chivalry are taken, and boys in their games use feudal phrases such as vassal and seigneur. In high schools history is universally taught, and is in general required for graduation or for entrance to college. Ancient history had always been studied in schools fitting for college, and universal history was also taught as a "polite" subject. . . . The work of the Commercial High Schools deserves especial mention. Here history is always compulsory, including in the

High School of Commerce, New York, which has a five-year course, in the second year, a general outline from the beginning of nations to 1750, with special reference to economic history and geography; third year, English and colonial history, 1620 to 1750, and England and the Continent from 1750 to the present day; fourth year, United States history, and in the fifth year, an elective course in nineteenth century history." We may perhaps feel that Miss Burstall's statements are too general, and that particularly, in regard to history teaching in the grades, she visited too few schools, else she would not have found European history taught to so great an extent. Perhaps, also, the schools she visited were not altogether representative; naturally the larger schools offer more courses in history than the smaller ones. However, her comments are interesting, even if one feels tempted to question some of them, such as those concerning the universality of history teaching.

TABLE D.

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF HISTORY COURSES IN APPROXIMATELY 600 HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1914.²⁸

Ancient History	198	93	133	59	18	5	3	1
European History	18	3	179	96	92	60	5	3
English History	31	11	39	22	103	118	11	13
American History	11	3	11	2	52	19	305	70

TABLE G.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF STUDENTS PURSUING COURSES IN HISTORY (OTHER THAN UNITED STATES), ENGLISH LITERATURE, ALGEBRA AND RHETORIC.²⁹

Subject	1890	1895	1900	1905	1910	1915
History ³⁰ (Other than U. S.)	82,909	162,336	238,134	318,775	455,200	664,478
	27.83%	34.65%	37.80%	40.50%	55.67%	51.41%
Algebra	127,397	245,465	347,013	444,092	465,375	636,016
	42.77%	52.40%	55.08%	56.43%	56.92%	49.26%
Rhetoric	146,672	237,502	372,266	426,711	718,578	
	31.31%	37.70%	47.30%	56.59%	55.61%	
English Literature		259,493	378,819	466,477	724,018	
		41.9%	48.4%	57.05%	56%	

Table G gives the statistics from which the above graphs were made, all of which point to a marvelous development of historical study, the more remarkable for its rapidity, for we find that one thousand nine hundred and seven, or 43 per cent., of the seven thousand one hundred and ninety-seven schools reporting increased the amount of history they offered between 1910 and 1914, while four hundred and eighty-seven decreased the amount.³¹ In 1914-1915

²⁸ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 150.

²⁹ U. S. Commissioner of Education Report for 1917, Vol. II, p. 14.

³⁰ It should be noted that the report is given for "History other than United States," although in the report for 1917 it is merely called "History." In the report for 1911 the same statistics are given, without the 1917 figures, and the course is called "History other than United States."

³¹ Report of Com. of Ed., 1915, p. 119.

²³ Boston Report of School Com., 1913, Doc. No. 8.

²⁴ Johnson, Op. Cit., pp. 134-5.

²⁵ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 137.

²⁶ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 141.

²⁷ Burstall, "Impressions of American Education in 1908," pp. 175-85.

TABLE E.

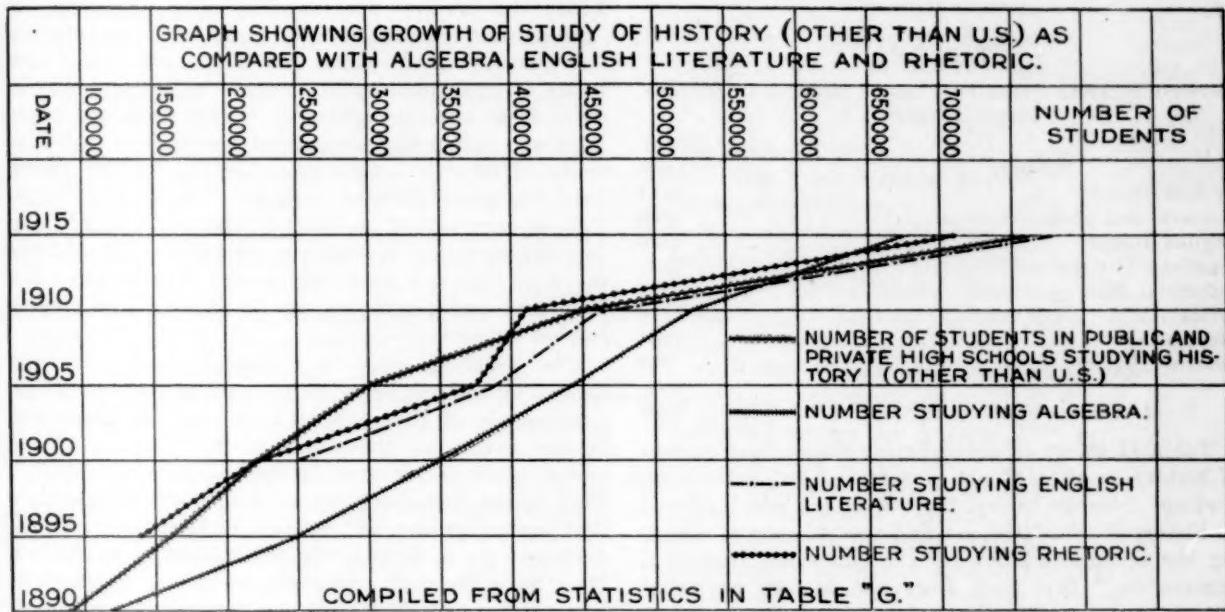


Table E shows in graph form the growth of history study as compared with that of algebra and English for the period 1890-1915, the period of the history conferences and of the great growth of history study.

TABLE F.

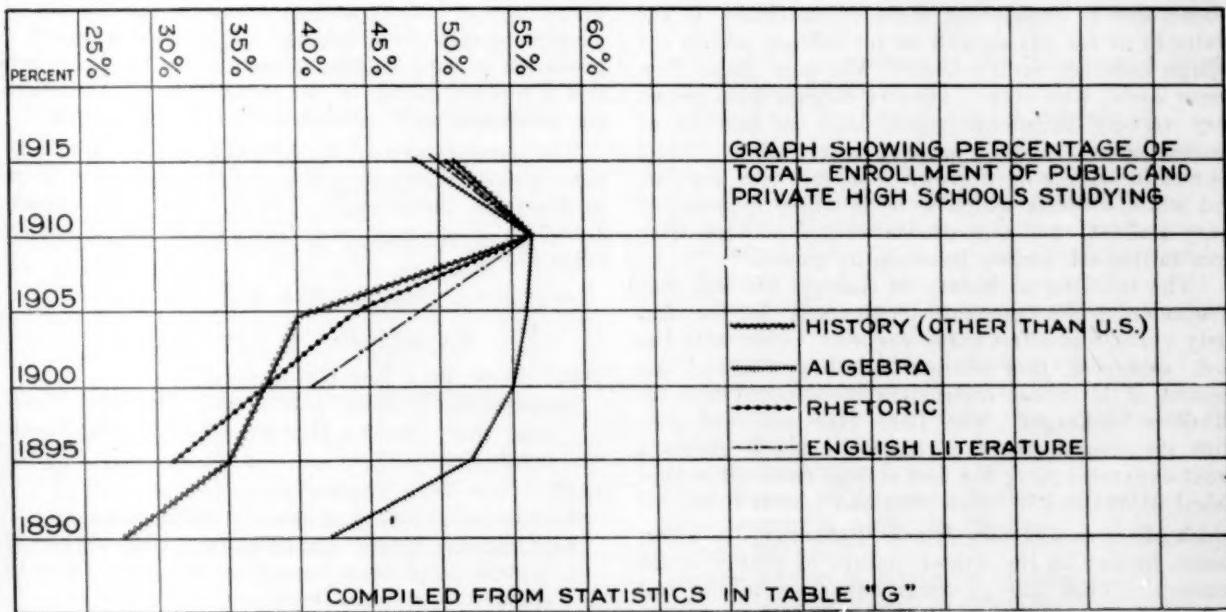


Table F shows in graph form the comparison in percentages of the total enrollment of students in history, English and algebra. It is interesting to note here that although history was far behind algebra, a required subject in 1890, by 1910 the history percentage almost caught up to algebra, and fell only a little behind in 1915.

there were 589,067 students of history in our schools,³² a great increase over the 186,581 in 1896-97.

TABLE H.
SHOWING SCHOOLS OFFERING VARIOUS COURSES IN HISTORY,
1914.

Subjects	No. of Schools
Ancient History	6141
Medieval and Modern Europe	5745
English History	4625
American History	6201
Industrial History	633
Civics	6276
Economics	2064
General History	326
Total of Schools Reporting	7197

Table H shows schools offering the various courses of history in 1914-15 out of a total 7,197 schools reporting. Strange to say, there were ten which offered no history.³³ In 1910, we find several schools adopting the recommendation of the American Historical Association,³⁴ that such European history as would form a background for American history be taught in the sixth grade of the elementary school; among the schools adopting the new plan were Syracuse, N. Y., New York City, Milford, Mass., and Brookline, Mass. Time forbids any further discussion of the secondary schools, but sufficient tables and graphs have been given to show a wonderful growth in the history course, due to broadening ideas of education, to the desire to fit for life as well as for college, and to the college entrance requirements. We may quote Professor Judd, who says: "History courses have grown very rapidly in recent years, both in number of courses offered and in student registration. While courses in science have grown relatively less popular, and while subjects which were formerly required of every student, such as mathematics and classics, have been falling off, history has steadily gained."³⁵

"The teaching of history in colleges has had also a wonderful development, particularly in the last forty years, and offers many surprises to one who has just 'supposed' that colleges had always offered any amount of historical instruction the student was inclined to 'undergo.' The 1918 Harvard catalogue, with its several pages of history courses, shows a great expansion since the first college curriculum published in America in 'New England's First Fruits,'³⁶ which offers as a history course 'Saturday, . . . afternoons, history in the winter, nature of plants in the summer.' That this progress has come in the last forty years is indicated by the fact that for the thir-

teen years preceding 1870 one professor had done the entire work in Harvard,³⁷ while in Columbia in 1865, the history professorship was abolished, as 'the subject was so vast and practically so exhaustless that the little which can be taught in the few hours of class instruction amounts to but a small remove from absolute ignorance.' Not until ten years later was this policy abandoned and history again introduced into the curriculum. In the twenty years, 1868-88, great changes occurred both in multiplication of courses and in specialization of study.³⁸ In forty-seven higher institutions reported by Dr. Adams in 1887, forty-six reported an aggregate of one hundred and eighty-nine courses in history and closely related subjects.³⁹

The great interest in European history is evidenced by the number of courses offered in the different periods of that subject, and the fact that professors devote all their time to the teaching of one period, such as "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." This means that the professors will be specialists in that particular line, and as a result the ambitious student may go as deeply into the subject as he wishes. Miss Sara Burstall comments on history in our colleges and universities thus:⁴⁰ "In colleges and universities history occupies relatively an even more important place compared with English, than it does in the high school. . . . It is clear from the formal documents in the university office (Harvard) that the division of history and political science is one of the most important. . . . In June, 1907, there were fifteen instructors in history and government, and the list of courses covers four pages. . . . Vassar requires a course in general European history in the first year, and a history course in the second year. There are six professors and instructors in the department."

The development of the history curriculum will be more plainly shown by a study of the courses as given in Harvard, Columbia, Union, Syracuse and Vassar, found in catalogues and tabulated in the following table:

TABLE I.

Columbia History Curriculum.

1868. New York Regents' Report:
Sophomores—Roman and Greek History, Medieval and Modern History Down to the Eighteenth Century.
1878. New York Regents' Report:
Freshmen—Greek and Roman Antiquities.
Sophomores—Greek Antiquities; beginnings of Middle Ages down to earlier part of eighteenth century. (2 hours week.)
Lectures on Medieval Institutions.

³² Report of U. S. Com. of Ed., Vol. 2, p. 496.

³³ Report of U. S. Com. of Ed., Vol. 2, p. 496, 1916.

³⁴ Report of U. S. Com. of Ed., 1911, Vol. 2, pp. 702-703.

³⁵ Judd, "Psychology of High School Subjects," p. 370.

³⁶ Quoted in Foster, "Administration of the College Curriculum," p. 13.

³⁷ Report of the American Historical Association, 1889, pp. 19-41.

³⁸ Boone, "Education in the United States," p. 177.

³⁹ U. S. Cire. of Inf., No. 2, 1887, p. 266.

⁴⁰ Burstall, Op. Cit., pp. 185-198.

1888. New York Regents' Report:
(Rawlinson's Manual of Ancient History required
for admission.)

Sophomore—German and French History obliga-
tory.

Junior—History and English Literature obliga-
tory.

Senior—Constitutional History of Europe, of Eng-
land and the United States.

1898. Columbia Catalogue:

Epochs of Ancient, Medieval and Modern History
required of all candidates for the A.B. degree.

Sixteen courses in Medieval and Modern History
and the history of particular countries offered.
Eight courses in American History.

1908. Columbia Catalogue:

Fifty-eight courses offered in History.

Fifteen of them in some period of European His-
tory.

Ten in American History.

Others in the History of China, Western Asia,
Egypt, India and Persia.

1914-1915. Columbia Catalogue:

Eighty-nine courses offered.

Twenty-seven in European History.

Seventeen in American History.

History of various countries.

1916-1917. Columbia Catalogue:

Twenty professors, instructors, associate professors
and assistants.

Six pages devoted to the history courses.

More than 100 courses offered.

Twenty-seven in European History proper.

Twenty-three in American History.

SYRACUSE HISTORY COURSE, 1878 AND 1888.

Classical Course.

1878. New York Regents' Report:

Freshman—Ancient History.

Sophomore—Medieval and Modern History.

Junior—History of English Revolutions.

Senior—Revolutions of the Nineteenth Century.

French Revolution.

Constitutional History of England.

Latin Scientific and Scientific Courses.

Freshman—Ancient History.

Sophomore—Medieval and Modern History.

History of English Revolutions.

Junior—History of French Revolution.

Senior—Revolutions of the Nineteenth Century.

History of Civilization.

Classical, Latin Scientific and Scientific Courses.

1888. New York Regents' Report:

Freshman—Ancient History.

Sophomore—Medieval History.

Modern History.

Junior—History of English Revolutions.

History of French Revolution.

Senior—History of Civilization.

UNION COLLEGE HISTORY COURSES.

Classical Course.

1868. New York Regents' Report:

Senior—Lectures on History and Philosophy.

Scientific Course.

Freshman—History.

1878. New York Regents' Report:

Freshman—History.

Sophomore—Ancient History.

Junior—History of Civilization.

1888. New York Regents' Report:

History of Civilization (elective).

HAMILTON COLLEGE HISTORY COURSE.

1868. New York Regents' Report:

Junior—Lectures on Ancient History.

Goldsmith's History of England.

1878. New York Regents' Report:

Junior—History of America.

1888. New York Regents' Report:

Freshman—Greek and Roman History.

Sophomore—Greek and Roman History.

Junior—English History, Medieval History (elec-
tive).

HARVARD HISTORY COURSE.

Prescribed Courses.

Catalogue for 1878:

Sophomore—Freeman's Outlines of General His-
tory.

Flander's Exposition of the Constitution of the
United States.

Ewald's "The Crown and Its Advisers."

Elective Courses.

1. Later Roman and Early Medieval History.

2. General History of Europe from the beginning
of the ninth to the end of the thirteenth century.

3. Revival of Learning and Reformation.

4. History of England to the Seventeenth Century.

5. Colonial History of America to 1789.

6. History of the United States, 1789-1840.

7. European History, 1600-1750.

8. European History from the Middle of the
Eighteenth Century.

Catalogue for 1888:

Nine courses in European History offered.

Five courses in American History.

Catalogue for 1898:

Twelve courses in European History.

Five courses in American History.

Catalogue for 1908-1909:

Course divided into Ancient, Medieval and Modern
and American Sections for graduates, under-
graduates and both.

Twenty-four courses in Modern History for grad-
uates and undergraduates.

Thirteen courses in Medieval History for both.

Seven in American History for both.

Catalogue for 1914-1915:

General course in European History from the Fall of Rome to the present required as a basis of all history work.

Ancient History—4 courses for undergraduates, 3 courses for graduates.

Medieval History—4 courses for undergraduates, 10 courses for graduates.

Modern History—4 courses for undergraduates, 14 for undergraduates and graduates, 12 courses for graduates.

American History—2 courses for undergraduates, 9 courses for undergraduates and graduates, 9 courses for graduates.

Catalogue for 1917-1918:

About 17 professors and 9 pages of catalogue are necessary to take care of the history course.

That students have been taking advantage of the wide choice offered them is proven by the fact that only two men of fifty chosen in the Harvard Class of 1909,⁴¹ chose no history course. It seems to me that the statement of J. H. Robinson in 1896 that "the average time devoted by students to the study of European history is very limited, and will probably remain so," has not proven true,⁴² for surely colleges would not offer as many as twenty-seven courses in European history, as is the case in Columbia in 1914-1915, if there were not a great demand for instruction in that subject.

The fact that college professors have written so many texts familiar to us all, also points to a large demand for instruction in European history, and the names of Robinson, Beard, Myers, Harding and West are all well known even to many high school students. No doubt the events of 1914-1918 have led to a great increase in the study of European history, the figures for which will appear in a year or so, and the period will long continue to be of particular interest as furnishing a knowledge of the causes of the great 1914-1918 "upheaval."

To conclude the story of history teaching in the colleges, the following Table J shows in a graphic way the development of the course:

TABLE J.

Date	History Offered.
Seventeenth Century	—History (?).
Eighteenth Century	—History (?).
1825	—Universal History.
1850	—General Outlines: Ancient, Classical, Modern English, Constitutional.
1875	—General Outlines: Ancient, Classical, European Civilization, Medieval, Modern English, political, constitutional, colonial America, diplomatic.
1900	—General Outlines: Ancient, Oriental Monarchies; Classical—Greece and Rome. General Medieval. Mohammedanism and the Crusades.

⁴¹ Foster, Op. Cit., p. 180.

⁴² Report of American Historical Association, 1896, Vol. I, p. 267.

Renaissance and Reformation.

Church History, Early Medieval and Modern.

General History of Europe.

French Revolution and Napoleonic Era.

Modern European History.

Northeastern Europe.

Eastern Asiatic Question of To-day.

English—Early Political, Middle, Modern, Constitutional.

Colonial Possessions.

United States—Colonial, national, political, constitutional, reconstruction period, present period, diplomatic, territorial expansion, opening of the west, Pacific Slope, Spanish American.

Surely no historical principle will be violated if the statement is made on the evidence produced that a great expansion in history teaching has taken place both in secondary schools and in colleges, due, as has been stated before, to the changed attitude toward the purpose of education and the value of history as a means to that end; in high schools the course has grown also to meet the college entrance requirement. There is particularly noticeable a widening interest in modern European history, doubtless due to recent events.

As the reports of the various committees appointed to investigate the history question have in large measure shaped the course since 1898, the last part of this paper is given over to a discussion of the reports of these.

The Committee of Seven was appointed by the American Historical Association to deal with the question of organizing the secondary school course.⁴³ This committee set to work⁴⁴ at the task of formulating some definite ideas out of the apparent chaos, with no recognized consensus of opinion, no well known point of agreement, and with varying local conditions. The committee was composed of Herbert B. Adams, George L. Fox, Albert B. Hart, Charles H. Haskins, Lucy M. Salmon, H. Morse Stephens, all well known historians, with Andrew C. McLaughlin chairman.

They gathered information by a series of circulars sent out, by discussions in various historical associations, by personal consultations with teachers, and from reports of three of the committee who studied educational conditions in England, France and Germany. Two lessons were suggested to be learned from foreign schools, first, the wisdom of demanding thoroughly trained teachers, and second, that a large place should be given to historical instruction. The value of the study to children is given; "to gain some knowledge of their environment and to fit them to become intelligent citizens; to cultivate judgment; to train in individual production by teaching the process of gathering material and putting it into new form; to help develop a scientific habit of mind and thought; to add to culture by a store of historical

⁴³ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 142.

⁴⁴ For full report see Report of American Historical Association, 1898, pp. 430-500.

knowledge; to quicken the imagination and to give aptness to expression.

After explaining that the course should be so arranged as to make the "story of the race" a continually developing and enlarging one, the committee lays down a program for four years in blocks or periods.

I. Ancient history, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including a short introductory study of the other ancient nations.

II. Medieval and modern history.

III. English history.

IV. American history and civil government.

The comment is added that none of these can be omitted without leaving "serious lacunæ in the pupil's knowledge of history, as ancient history in the first year will serve to give life and meaning to all work in classic tongues, the modern gives the children certain cardinal lessons, and the English naturally precedes the American and is part of it."

No short course in general history is recommended, because it "Necessitates one of two modes of treatment, neither of which is sound and reasonable." Either energy will be directed to the profitless task of memorizing, with no opportunity for the first principles of historical thinking, or else the student must deal with large generalizations which he must unquestionably accept."

The next section of the report is taken up with a discussion of how the different periods may be treated, and in this paper is of interest only in the suggestion with reference to the teaching of medieval and modern history. "The desired unity may be obtained either through a study of general movements, or by the selection of the history of one nation as a central thread and studying outside events in their relation to this country. If neither of these is used, two methods are left, but in either the effort to unify is largely given up; one, the general view of the whole field by studying histories of nations in parallel lines, and the other, the omission of large portions of the field and the study of a few important epochs.

The method of instruction is so familiar, since most of us obtained our secondary historical instruction by it, and perhaps have even endeavored to teach according to its principles, that little comment is needed. It should be sufficient to say that it includes textbook, collateral reading, written work, notebook, tests, maps, and source study all judiciously used.

Of particular interest is the demand for trained teachers whose requisites are "knowledge, skill in handling books, a living sympathy with the tale to be told, and a historical mind."

The committee recommends a minimum college entrance requirement of two units of history, explaining that two things should be considered, the fundamental scope and purpose of the major part of the secondary schools, and the allowing of such elasticity that schools may fit pupils for college, and yet adapt themselves to some extent to local environment and needs.

The present condition of history teaching in American secondary schools, gained from a study of some two hundred and ten schools, shows as to choice of subjects, English and American history taught in more than half of the schools, general history taught in almost exactly half, Greek and Roman history taught in about half, and European history taught in about half of the schools. This report the majority of schools apparently still find feasible.⁴⁵ Table D, given previously, shows the number of schools in 1914, following the system as shown in the study of six hundred schools, the reports of which seem to indicate that about forty schools were disregarding altogether the block plan.⁴⁶

An interesting comparison may be found in a series of articles which appeared in *La Revue de Synthèse Historique* in 1904 and 1905, discussing the teaching of history in the universities of France and Germany in 1891 and in 1904. We find that modern history has been advancing for more than a fourth of a century with quite a development since 1891. There is some difficulty in tabulating the courses since the middle and modern period are often considered as one. That the teaching of history in Germany is more extensive than ever before, and that there has been a very appreciable increase in the medieval and modern courses, may be seen by the following table:⁴⁷

TABLE K.
HISTORY COURSES IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

			1891	
	Profs.	Dozs.	Profs.	Dozs.
Histoire Ancienne	31	9	33	7
Histoire Medievale	32	9	33	14
Histoire Moderne	31	8	44	15
Histoire Med. Mod.	28	7	29	7
Histoire Locale, etc.	5	1	11	4

The "Dozent" is a professor whose courses are listed in the catalogue of the university with which he is connected, but whose remuneration comes largely from fees from the students.

The number of hours a week given to the different subjects in the schools of Germany may be seen by the following:

	1891	1904
Ancienne	213	238
Medievale	189	223
Moderne	173	282
Medievale et Moderne	103	45
Locale	22	27

Each history course shows an increase in number of hours offered, with the exception of "Medievale et Moderne," the decrease there being due to the fact, one may suppose, that students enrolled in separate courses since they show a large increase which is particularly noticeable in the case of the "Moderne"

⁴⁵ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 149.

⁴⁶ Johnson, Op. Cit., p. 150.

⁴⁷ L'Enseignement de l'Histoire dans les Universités d'Allemagne et de France—*La Revue de Synthèse Historique*, Vol. 8, pp. 104-108.

course. This amounts to a total of more than eight hundred hours of history offered.

The teaching of history in France⁴⁸ compares in amount of courses offered rather unfavorably with that in Germany, the author stating that no comparison with the work in 1891 has been attempted since the increase has been too insignificant to notice.

NUMBER OF PROFESSORS, ASSISTANT PROFESSORS AND LECTURERS.

A. In Paris.

Antiquité	Moyen Age	Moderne
Hist.—Aux. Science	Hist.—Aux. Science	Histoire
5	4	7
9	18	7

Total hours offered, 29.

B. In Provinces.

Antiquité	Moyen Age	Moderne
Histoire Locale	Divers	
8	12	18
8	4	

Total number of hours offered, 45.

The whole number of history teachers in France in the universities in 1904 was then 74, or not even half as many as in Germany. No more than two hundred hours a week of historical instruction were offered in France or one-fourth the amount given in Germany. France had about one-third as many history teachers as Germany. The average university in the latter country had six or seven history professors, three or four, or perhaps even five of whom taught modern history, while a French university was pleased to have three history professors, one for the modern courses. In Paris a student could pursue a history course for six years without studying even all periods of French history, to say nothing of foreign history, while in Berlin there were courses in all periods of history of all the important countries.

France with her thirty professors was inferior also to Italy or Austria which had each about forty. Yet the comment⁴⁹ is made that at that time the teaching of history was better than ever before, more complete and reasonable.

Of interest is the discussion concerning "the three-fold task of the history professor," which is stated as follows: to promote the progress of the historical science; to prepare workmen for it, and to make known to the public his provisional conclusion.⁵⁰

As to the character of the teaching of the two countries M. Crapet says⁵¹ of the teaching in the French primary schools: "With us to 1880 history has been an intensive cultivation of a narrow, even barbarian, patriotism; in 1900 it has become laical and even republican." The comment is also made "that the Germans have made their history teaching a school of error where the patriotic end justifies the means.

They teach that the aim of the eternal in creating the world has been to prepare the domination of the Prussians over the universe." This was written in 1904, but throws light on the German attitude in 1914, and points out the danger which might arise from the wrong kind of patriotic teaching. The article closes with the statement that at that time economic, social and esthetic questions were taking a more and more important place in the studies of professors and students.

The Committee of Five⁵² was appointed by the Council of the American Historical Association in 1907. The members were Andrew C. McLaughlin (chairman), Charles Haskins, James Harvey Robinson and James Sullivan, the fifth member having died. Their report consisted of a review of the report of the Committee of Seven, suggestions for the most helpful instruction of their work, and some recommendations for change. They found the vast majority of schools had adopted the block or period plan of organizing the history courses, and in answer to the apparent demand for more time for the study of modern history, suggestions are offered for the three and four year courses to give greater opportunity for this study. The committee approved a rearrangement of the old curriculum by the old remedy of condensation and omission, abridging the medieval and the English period. The new schedule of courses as suggested by the committee is as follows:

I. Ancient history to 800 A. D. The events of the last five hundred years to be passed over rapidly.

II. English history, beginning with a brief statement of England's connection with the ancient world. The work should trace the main line of English development to about 1760, include as far as possible or convenient the chief facts of general European history, especially before the seventeenth century, and give something of the colonial history of America.

III. Modern European history, including such introductory matter concerning later medieval institutions and the beginning of the modern age, including such matter as seems wise and desirable, and giving a suitable treatment of English history from 1760.

IV. American history and government, so arranged as to give some time, preferably two-fifths of the total time, to the study of government.

Here modern history shows its influence, for medieval history is pushed back to the ancient field or combined with English history to leave a whole year for the later course. This seems the most desirable arrangement, for the amount of available material is so much greater for this period that extended study is more easily possible, and more important still, the greatest interest lies in this field because of its closer relation with our own time.

In 1914 a preliminary report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, included a report of the Committee on Social Studies. In 1916 the finished report was prepared by the Bureau of Educa-

⁴⁸ *La Revue*, Op. Cit., pp. 108-111.

⁴⁹ *La Revue*, Op. Cit., p. 164.

⁵⁰ *La Revue*, Op. Cit., Vol. 9, p. 32.

⁵¹ *La Revue*, Op. Cit., Vol. 11, pp. 114-115.

⁵² Report of American Historical Association, 1910, pp. 211-242.

tion in their Bulletin No. 28, 1916, from which a clear idea of the changed attitude toward history teaching may be gained. In the first place, the grouping of certain subjects into what are called the social studies, was somewhat of a departure, although surely many teachers had "somewhere within them" the social idea of history teaching. The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society and to man as a member of social groups.⁵³ Their aim is the cultivation of good citizenship, in other words, high national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them. The cycle plan of organization is recommended with the suggestion that it fits the 8-4 or the 6-3-3 division of school classes. Geography, history and civics are the social studies suggested for the seventh, eighth and ninth years according to the following plan:⁵⁴

SEVENTH YEAR:

(1) Geography one-half year.

European history one-half year.

Civics, taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. Or,

(2) European history one year.

Geography taught incidentally to, and as a factor in the history.

Civics, taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. Or,

EIGHTH YEAR:

American history one-half year.

Civics one-half year.

Geography, taught incidentally to, and as a factor in the above subjects.

NINTH YEAR:

(1) Civics, containing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon state, national, and world aspects. One-half year.

Civics, economic and vocational aspects, one-half year.

History, much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses. Or

(2) Civics, economic and vocational, and economic history, one year in sequence or parallel.

It is plain to be seen that European history is pushing back into the elementary schools with the aim of making the children feel that the history of our country is a part of the history of the world,⁵⁵ and that it had its beginning many centuries before its discovery, the course being called "European Beginnings in American History."

The High School Course in Social Studies as recommended by the committee is as follows:⁵⁶

I. European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century. One year. This would include ancient and Oriental civilization, English history to the end of the period mentioned, and the period of American exploration.

II. European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century. 1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

III. American history since the seventeenth century. 1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

IV. Problems of American democracy. 1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

This is plainly a repetition of the cycle of social study provided for the years VII-IX, but so arranged as to be easily adaptable to the special needs of the different groups of pupils or of different high school curriculums. The committee believes there should be a social study in each year of the pupil's course, but realizing the difficulty in obtaining this, suggests a minimum which should be determined by the needs of the particular pupil or group of pupils. They suggest that it would seem desirable for the student to take those social studies which would most directly aid him to understand the relations of his own social life.

The principles of organization are explained on the ground that first, in small high schools more than two units of history are impracticable, and in large high schools, few take more than two; second, the long historical period included in course I offers a wide range of materials from which to select, and makes possible the development of topics continually and unhampered by chronological and geographical limitations; third, the assignment of an equal amount of time to the period since the seventeenth century is due to a conviction that recent history is richer in suitable materials for secondary education than the more remote periods, and is worthy of more intensive study; fourth, the history of any two years that the pupil may elect will be related; fifth, a larger proportion of pupils will secure the benefits of a study of the essentials of European history.

As to the position of history in the curriculum the committee suggest that competition is very evident, and Prof. J. H. Robinson is quoted that the historian should find those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present; while Professor Mace's statement is that to connect events and conditions with life as the pupil knows it will make history more or less of a practical subject. From this we may see that the demand is that history be made a course necessary for the practical development of the highest type of citizenship.

The year 1919 brings the report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the schools, the data concerning which has been gleaned from the supplement to the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for June, 1919. It is representative of the National Educational Association, the American Historical Association, and the Committee for Historical Research. J. Schaeffer is chairman, and Andrew C. McLaughlin, Knowlton, Harding, Chandler, Bagley, Ford and Bogardus are the other names which appear. Their report includes a very definite outline of a course of study for the elementary schools, the junior high

⁵³ U. S. Bureau of Ed., Bul. No. 28, 1916, p. 9.

⁵⁴ U. S. Bureau of Ed., Op. Cit., p. 15.

⁵⁵ U. S. Bureau of Ed., Op. Cit., p. 21.

⁵⁶ U. S. Bureau of Ed., Op. Cit., p. 35.

school, an organization which has recently made its appearance, and the high school. This course of study is as follows:

I. The Elementary School, grades 1-6.

1. The course begins and ends in the community.

Second Grade. The Making of the Community.

A study of changes leading back to Indian days.

2. The Making of the United States.

Third Grade. How the Europeans found our continent and what they did with it.

Fourth Grade. How the Englishmen became Americans in 1607-1783.

Fifth Grade. The United States, 1783-1877.

Sixth Grade. The United States Since 1877 (half year).

How we are governed to-day (half year).

II. The Junior High School, grades 7-9.

1. American history in its world setting

Seventh Grade. The world before 1607, and the beginning of American history, including the building of the Spanish Empire in the new world.

Eighth Grade. The world since 1607, viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States.

Ninth Grade. Community and National Activities.

A combination of recent economic and social history with commercial geography and civics.

III. Senior High School, grades 10-12.

1. The Modern World.

Tenth Grade. Progress toward world democracy 1650 to the present; a study mainly of European history, but with some attention also to the rest of the non-American world.

Eleventh Grade. United States history during the national period.

Twelfth Grade. Social, economic and political principles and problems.

The report closes with the statement that the recommendations of the present committee will be co-ordinated with the reports of the Committees of Seven and Five, on high school studies in history, since its work grows out of and is conditioned by their work.

This report makes more radical changes than the others, and will draw forth more objections, if the current discussion heard in the University of Chicago is any indication. Doctor Tryon suggests the unusual division of periods. "Why close a period of American history at 1877, or why choose 1650 instead of the well-known 1648, as a closing date in European history?" To the mind of a "mere student" the greatest objection is the plunge into European history at 1650 with no more introduction to what has gone before than the elementary school course offers. If any study in the world illustrates the "cause and effect" theory it surely is history, and how can the students grasp in the course suggested for the seventh and eighth grades, the vital points necessary for the

understanding of later European history? Should the Reformation and the Renaissance, feudalism and chivalry be left out of the modern child's historical knowledge? Or is the "modern child" so modern that he can grasp the fundamental principles of these institutions in his elementary instruction? One cannot fail to think of the statement of the Committee of Seven that if any of the four fields, ancient, medieval and modern, English and American are omitted, there will be "serious lacunæ" in the student's historical knowledge.

The "inclusive" subjects of the course seem too vague and indefinite to mean much to a young student, and the vast amount of material evidently included makes a definite knowledge of a well-organized story of events or institutions difficult.

The arrangement suggested by the Committee of Five seems more nearly to meet the need, and schools should consider seriously before adopting the later recommendation before modifications are made, if a mere "person" may be allowed to express an opinion. As Doctor Tryon remarked, "Courses of study are not made in offices and these have not yet been tried out."

All the conferences and reports show that we have come to see the important place which history holds or should in our school curriculum. The position of European history, and particularly that of the modern period is prominent just now, because of the desire of "Young America" to see the "whys and wherefores" of the great war, and the even greater desire of our government that the correct impression of our relation to world affairs should be gained. The historians who have been struggling for years to make the history course what it should be, are still at work, and the modern European history specialists are to "have their day," with America linked with Europe, the history of that country has an ever deepening interest for us, and 1919 will leave us poring over texts of European history while the professors will be diligently "turning out" new ones for our eager perusal.

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(Continued on page 72)

In his article entitled, "A Word on New Guinea," Lieut. E. M. Pearson Chinnery (*The English Review* for September), says: "No one who has seen for himself the interior of New Guinea can doubt its value to commerce and science. Its timbers and economic plant-life are inexhaustible; the mineral wealth which is already being exploited, is shed from the unknown interior. . . . But the exploration of this country involves three things which have retarded its progress—hardship, danger, expense. Four things are necessary to ensure every possibility of success. The first is a leader who has proved himself capable of overcoming difficulties of travel, . . . the second is a party representing various branches of economic and general science; the third is an aerial staff with full equipment and facilities, and the last is capital."

Cleveland Meeting of the American Historical Association, December 1919

REPORTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

The American Historical Association, held at Cleveland, December 29 to 31, 1919, its first meeting since the ending of the war, the meeting which was to have been held last year having been abandoned on account of the epidemic of influenza. Approximately three hundred and twenty-five were registered as being in attendance, fifty less than the number registered at Philadelphia, and about the same as the number that attended the meeting at Cincinnati.

As was to be expected, many of the papers or addresses treated of history in its immediate or remote relationship to the war, to the historical foundations of the peace treaty, or to problems of reconstruction and government which are pressing for solution as a result of the abnormal conditions of the present time.

The usual difficulties were experienced of trying to be in several places at once, in the endeavor to hear papers of interest which were being simultaneously delivered at different conferences, as well as feeling the strain of unduly prolonged sessions due to the frequent inability of the speakers to keep within the time limit. The result was that no one wished to further delay the adjournment of conferences by starting a discussion, which might have been a helpful supplement to the papers read. An unusual number of papers were not delivered by reason of the absence, through illness or other unavoidable cause, of those scheduled to take part. The Conference of the Agricultural History Society scheduled for Monday morning was omitted altogether for this reason, and at several other conferences two out of four of the speakers were not present.

One received the impression that an unusual proportion of the women members of the association were in attendance at the sessions. It might be pertinent to suggest that the program committee for the Washington meeting in 1920, might consider the advisability of including in the program the names of some of the women teachers of history.

The program as arranged kept the visitors busy enough, but the social instincts were provided for by the two complimentary luncheons, one provided by the Western Reserve Historical Society and the other by the authorities of the Western Reserve University. Men attending the meeting received guest cards to the Union and the University Clubs. At the former, on Monday evening, a complimentary smoker was arranged for the two associations. On Tuesday, a reception was tendered the women by the College Club. Besides these functions, various groups having common interests held breakfast, luncheon and dinner conferences to the number of a dozen or more.

One of the most important sessions of the meeting was that held on Monday afternoon to consider the

preliminary report of the Committee on History and Citizenship. Most of the speakers appeared to be opposed to the preliminary report of the committee, especially so far as it applied to the elementary and secondary schools. For the former a less radical modification of the report of the old Committee of Eight was advocated by the speakers. Objection was also made to the alternative course in ancient history proposed for the ninth year. Other speakers pointed out that what was wanted was to know what was to be required and what topics within the field were to be chosen; it was also pointed out that the Junior High School question is by no means settled, that there is much reason to believe that it is not the best possible organization for seventh, eighth and ninth grades, and that it was not desirable that a course should be made on the supposition that the Junior High School idea would within a few years be adopted throughout the United States. Especial emphasis was placed on the need of historically trained teachers if the work is to be effectively done. After a rather lively discussion in which but one speaker seemed to favor the report as presented, it was tacitly agreed by the conference that the report should go back to the committee for further revision and for report at the 1920 meeting.

At the luncheon conference Professor Lovejoy spoke a greater interest in the Association of University Professors, especially to be displayed by attendance at the annual meetings.

The general trend of the papers read at the conference on economic history pointed out the great advantages that have come to labor through collective bargainings, and that it is not likely that labor will give up this policy without a struggle that may result in a serious industrial upheaval.

At the Monday evening meeting, in his presidential address, on "Recent Fallacies in History," Dr. William R. Thayer objected to what he described as the "Sunday School spirit," which so affected some modern writers of history that they refused to face facts, and wrote history that would be pleasant to read, and which would create a false world in the past.

Prof. H. J. Ford, president of the American Political Science Association, the other speaker at the joint session of the two associations, in his address on "Present Tendencies in American Politics," called attention to the apparent failure of representative government, and suggested that the remedy is to do away with the present spurious form of representative government, by making a more direct connection between the legislative and the executive departments and by keeping members of the legislature from having access to appointments or to the treasury.

At the joint conference with the Political Science Association, on the Russian Revolution, the speakers agreed in believing that Bolshevism would not survive, and that it would be succeeded by some form of a Pan-Slavic federated state, which would include in its constitution, however, many political ideals of the Bolsheviks.

Professor Bingham, in his paper on the "Future of the Monroe Doctrine," at the conference on Hispanic American History, on Tuesday, stated that the world war had changed his opinion that the Monroe Doctrine was an "obsolete shibboleth," and advocated, first, an active Monroe Doctrine with respect to the Caribbean Republics; second, a latent Monroe Doctrine with respect to Chili and Argentina; third, intervention in Mexico.

Former Senator Albert J. Beveridge, of Indiana, was the speaker at the dinner conference on the History of the War, but his remarks dealt chiefly with the present industrial unrest. The keynote of his remarks is found in his statement that "No group, whether Wall Street or labor, shall procure special legislation, by corruption on the one hand or force on the other."

The evening session on Tuesday was devoted to a discussion of some problems of the peace conference. Professor Haskins pointed out that the Franco-German frontier has been anything but stable for the last thousand years, and took his audience through the steps which led to the final adjustment not only of the question of Alsace-Lorraine, but of the question of the coal mines of the Saar Valley, an adjustment that a later speaker intimated was made as a result of the suggestion of Professor Haskins.

Professor Lord discussed the question of the new Poland from the points of view of history, race, language, and religion, concluding that the indeterminate eastern boundary will largely follow the boundary of the Polish-speaking peoples, and that a close alliance with Ukraine and Lithuania is probable.

The remarks of Mr. Alexander F. Whyte, M.P. from 1910-1918 and the representative of the *London News* at the Peace Conference, were of the greatest interest. Here, as at the luncheon conference, he pointed out that one of the difficulties was that none of the three large nations at the conference were agreed on the fundamental principles for which they were struggling. President Wilson may or may not have represented America in his views, but it is certain that he represented many millions in Europe. The common man regarded him as the mouthpiece of his own thoughts on European problems. Lloyd George was shackled as the result of an election held just after the armistice in which "the war mind" dominated; Clemenceau sought a peace that would mean security through force of arms, a conception born of bitter experience. Baron Sonnino conceived of war and peace as a continuation of the balance of power. The natural result of these conflicting forces was either a deadlock or a compromise, and it was these necessary compromises that have given rise to much of the criticism of the treaty. In spite of this,

Mr. Whyte believed that the treaty is a good one, first in that it endeavored to remove the causes of war, and second, that in the League of Nations, it contained the means of its own betterment.

The conference on Modern European History on Wednesday was devoted to papers on phases of English history. In presenting his discussion of England's earliest empire, a commercial one, composed of the outlying trading posts with extra territorial and other rights, and in detecting a resemblance and a connection between it and the great British Empire of to-day, Professor Cheyney took occasion to say that he believed that the idea of the purely detached study of the past could be abandoned, and that he felt the past could teach us lessons and could be used to explain situations existing at the present time. Professor Cross indicated that the most promising solution of the problem of Imperial Federation lay in the continuance of a body like the Imperial War Council, or else to have the representatives of the outlying dominions become members of the cabinet without portfolio, to meet periodically in conference with the other members of the cabinet.

In the conference on American history, Professor Jernegan pointed out that before the war, many slaves had become expert mechanics of one sort or another, and that the use of skilled slave labor by owners of slaves, and its rental to those having need of such labor was an important factor in determining the economic status of slavery prior to the civil war. Professor Bond showed how the political situation in a colony often changed after an agent had been sent to England, resulting in coercive measures, such as reductions in salary, being applied to the agent, in order to force him to comply with the wishes of the party which had succeeded to the control of the colonial government.

At the luncheon, Prof. Arthur P. Newton, of the University of London, spoke of the need for further co-operation in education amongst the English-speaking countries. This had already been accomplished for the British Empire through the Universities Bureau of the British Empire, but further co-operation was desirable with the universities of the United States.

At the ancient history conference in the afternoon Professor Knipfing drew attention to the changed point of view of German historians in their attitude toward Macedonian imperialism, after the philosophy of Hegel had come to exert its weight on the training of German historians. The change from an anti-Philip, pro-Demosthenes point of view to the reverse as the German idea of the super-state developed was shown by extracts from the writings of German historians of the last century.

At the conference on nationalism, Professor Stephenson described the effect of Lincoln's personal influence in arousing during the Civil War the sense of nationality in the states of the old Northwest Territory. Doctor Beard traced the changes in the point of view of different sections of the country during the past sixty years, concluding that in general agricul-

ture tended to be provincial, and capital national in its feeling, and that the recent development of nation-wide nationalism was due to a nation-wide capitalism, though there are some exceptions.

Professor Dodd's thesis was that recent changes in the attitude of the country toward the President and his policies, especially that shown by the election of a Republican congress in 1918, were due to an emotional reaction against the President by those elements in our population that have not yet fully identified themselves with American ideas and traditions, and not to a reasoned consideration of the ideals for which the President stood and a resulting deliberate rejection of them.

The annual meeting of the Association, held on Tuesday afternoon, was of more than usual interest, owing to the two-year interval since 1917. The report of the treasurer showed but little change in the finances of the Association. The budget as planned carries a deficit of nearly \$1,700, which it is proposed to meet by again asking for the voluntary contribution of an extra dollar by members, when paying their dues. The secretary reported a slight increase in the number of members. A directory is being compiled which will be issued as a part of the annual report for 1918 in February, and the war record of members will be issued as a special supplement to the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. The Santa Anna Papers and the Martin Van Buren Papers are well along toward publication, and it is expected to publish during the year the first instalment of the Austin Papers, which have been edited by Professor Barker. The Primer of Archives was announced as being nearly ready for publication. The prize for military history was not awarded owing to a dearth of manuscripts, but will probably be awarded during the year 1920.

The Herbert Baxter Adams Prize was awarded to Mr. William T. Morgan for his essay on English Political Parties during the reign of Queen Anne, 1702-1710.

Professor Cheyney, as chairman of the Board of Editors of the *Review*, stated that the work of German historians during the war period in those phases of history which are unconnected with the war will be reviewed in an early number of the magazine.

Professor Learned announced the intention of commemorating the twenty-fifth anniversary of the *Review* by the publication of a volume of twenty-five essays selected from the *Review*.

It was also announced that the London office of the Association was to be given up, since the American University Union was to a large extent doing the work which the London office was organized to perform.

The meeting also approved or took suitable action on the following recommendations of the Council:

To appoint a committee of three (Mr. Leland, Mr. Learned, and a third member to be selected by them) to examine the records of the Association at Washington, destroy those of no value, arrange others for permanent preservation (if possible in the division of manuscripts, Library of Congress), and prepare for publication such of the more important records of the

Council and Association, not hitherto printed, as they may judge suitable.

To take over the associate membership in the American Council on Education previously held by the National Board of Historical Service.

To make provision for the participation of the Association in the American Council of Learned Societies devoted to Humanistic Studies.

That the competition for the Winsor and Adams prizes be limited to essays submitted by the contestant.

To authorize the president, secretary and treasurer of the Association to institute legal proceedings against certain societies, using names similar to that of the Association, for the protection of the Association and the public, if in the judgment of the officers above mentioned, such proceedings are found to be advisable.

To adopt a plan for the affiliation of the Agricultural History Society with the Association, providing for the publication of certain Notes and News Section in the *Review*, and in the Annual Reports of the American Historical Association; also providing that the president of the society may attend meetings of the Council of the Association (without a vote), and that the society shall be represented on the publication and program committees of the Association.

To recommend that the annual meeting of 1920 be held in Washington.

To omit the customary Council meeting at Thanksgiving time.

To discontinue the present Board of Advisory Editors of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, create a new "Board of Editors of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*," appoint five editors to serve for one year, who shall co-operate with the present managing editor, and report such proposals respecting the future relations of the Association and the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* as may then appear desirable.

The meeting also adopted changes in the constitution and by-laws which abolish the office of curator and the secretary to the Council, combining the offices of secretary of the Council and secretary of the Association. An assistant secretary-treasurer is provided to take over the routine work of the secretary and the treasurer; and the president, the vice-presidents, the secretary, and the treasurer are constituted members of the Council.

The possibility of making these changes without legislating anyone out of office came by reason of the retirement of Mr. Leland, secretary of the Association, and of Professor Greene, secretary of the Council. The committee in nomination presented the following recommendations for officers: President, Edward Channing; vice-presidents, Jean Jules Jusserand, Charles H. Haskins; secretary, John S. Bassett; treasurer, Charles Moore.

For Members of the Council: George M. Wrong, H. E. Bourne, H. E. Bolton, W. E. Dodd, W. L. Fleming, W. E. Lingelbach (these six nominated for re-election), J. T. Shotwell, Ruth Putman (these two nominated for new members).

For Nominating Committee: Victor H. Paltsits, C. R. Fish, J. G. de Rouhac Hamilton (these three nominated for re-election), F. H. Hodder, Eloise Ellery (these two nominated for election as new members).

No opposing nominations being made, all the nominees were elected by the ballot of the secretary pro tem, Professor Sioussat. The meeting adopted a minute appreciating the services of the retiring secretaries and regretting that they found it necessary to give up their offices. Minutes were also approved accepting as expressing the feelings of the Association the memoirs adopted by the Council in appreciation of the work of H. Morse Stephens, Andrew D. White, Theodore Roosevelt, and Henry Adams.

The National Board for Historical Service announced that they had closed up their affairs with royalties on hand of one thousand dollars, the proceeds of sales of their book of war readings. The copyright was turned over to the Association, together with the accumulated royalties, the latter to be used as the basis of a memorial to H. Morse Stephens.

The following committees were announced:

Committee on Publications.—H. B. Learned, chairman; other members ex-officio.

Secretary of the Conference of Historical Societies.—J. C. Parish.

Committee on National Archives.—J. F. Jameson, chairman; Charles Moore, Colonel O. L. Spalding.

Committee on Membership (Revived).—E. H. Bourne, A. C. Krey, F. E. Melvin, A. R. Newhall, Julia F. Owis, C. W. Ramsdell, J. G. Randall, A. P. Scott, J. J. Van Nostrand, Jr., G. F. Zook.

Board of Editors, Historical Outlook.—To serve in co-operation with A. E. McKinley, managing editor, for one year from January 1, 1920: Edgar Dawson, L. M. Salmon, L. M. Larson, St. G. L. Sioussat, W. L. Westermann.

Committee on Program, Thirty-sixth Annual Meeting.—C. J. H. Hayes, chairman; other members to be selected later by the Council in consultation with the chairman.

Historical Manuscripts Committee.—Justin H. Smith, chairman; E. C. Barker, Mrs. A. G. Draper, L. Esarey, G. Hunt, C. H. Lincoln.

Public Archives Commission.—Suspended for 1920. **Special Committee on Primer of Archives.**—Victor H. Paltsits, chairman; W. G. Leland; these two to select one or more additional members.

Committee on Justin Winsor Prize.—F. L. Paxson, chairman; A. C. Cole, C. H. Haring, F. H. Hodder, N. W. Stephenson.

Committee on Henry Baxter Adams Prize.—Conyers Read, chairman; C. J. H. Hayes, C. H. McIlwain, Nellie Neilson, Bernadotte Schmidt.

Editor of the American Historical Review.—To serve six years from January 1, 1920, J. F. Jameson.

Committee on Bibliography.—Suspended for 1920.

Special Committee to Co-operate with the American Library Association in the Preparation of a Manual of Historical Literature.—G. M. Dutcher, chairman; S. B. Fay, A. H. Shearer, and an additional member to be designated by the chairman.

Committee on Bibliography of Modern English History.—E. P. Cheyney, chairman. Chairman to suggest to the Council the names of his colleagues on the committee.

In addition to the above, an unofficial *Committee on the History of the War* was organized at the dinner conference on Tuesday evening, December 30. The names of the members follow: F. M. Anderson, L. M. Larsen, E. D. Adams, Carlton J. H. Hayes, B. E. Schmidt.

(Continued from page 68)

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Report of the Secretary and Papers Read at the Conference on the Report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools

CLEVELAND, DECEMBER 29, 1919, 2.30 P. M.

REPORTED BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D.

A large and interested audience attended the session of the American Historical Association devoted to the discussion of the proposals of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. Seats were at a premium, over two hundred persons being in attendance. Although the program was long—too long for adequate discussion from the floor—most of the audience remained until the chairman brought the discussion to a close so that those who had arranged might attend the dinner conferences set for six o'clock. In the absence of Professor McLaughlin, who was prevented from attending by illness, first Professor Ford, and later Professor Harding acted as chairman.

The chairman of the committee, Professor Schafer, in opening the conference assumed that the audience were familiar with the committee's proposals and touched only upon points which had been raised in connection with these. Two objects were sought in the work of the first six grades: to show that the social world was a world of progressive development; and to give the boys and girls in these grades some idea of the value of evidence. History rather than other subjects in the curriculum could best develop these two ideas. Through the courtesy of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* copies of the report as it appeared in the June issue were circulated among the audience. The committee disclaimed any notion of "scrapping" the work of the Committee of Eight. This was not necessary in order to put the present scheme in operation. The Junior High School was referred to as the new and dynamic factor in education. A recent survey of the school mortality in the city of Minneapolis was cited as one of the reasons for its establishment, and it was pointed out that the courses offered there must be enriched and broadened and adapted to a greater extent than in the past to the felt needs of the child.

The ninth year course was especially stressed. This course pivoted upon American history, introducing a great deal of American economic and social history, and contained a large element of commercial geography. Ten great American industries were to be taken as the basis of the course. The problems of citizenship were to be looked at from the standpoint of the various occupations represented by these industries.

As most of the present-day problems had their roots within the past three hundred years, it was proposed to study in the senior high school modern world history. A situation had arisen in the colleges which

was causing some concern, the apparent necessity of differentiating between the serious students and those who came to college for the college life and college contacts. Professor Schafer suggested some such differentiation reaching back into the senior high school and proposed that cycles of reading be laid down for the more serious students.

Professor Bogardus summed up in a clear and interesting exposition the problems before the teacher-training institutions. His paper appears elsewhere.

From this point on the speakers discussed the program of the committee from three aspects. The first of these had to do with what was actually offered (1) in the grades, (2) in the Junior High School, and (3) in the last three years of the high school. The second concerned itself rather with the adaptability of the proposals to actual conditions in the different sections of the country; the last with the relation of this particular program to that advocated by the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A.

Doctor Coulomb, in his discussion of the content of the elementary grades, pointed out what he regarded as some of the practical difficulties which the elementary schools had to face, especially that of poorly prepared teachers. He also emphasized the character of the pupils, many of whom in the larger cities came from immigrant homes with little or no background to assist the teacher or program-maker. His plea was for a retention of much of the report of the Committee of Eight, modifying this along the lines of the experience of the Philadelphia schools. He showed in tabular form what changes these would involve as compared with the report of the Committee of Eight and the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. He insisted that the sixth grade work in the European background be retained and brought down to 1607, leaving for the seventh and eighth grades the field of American history proper, taught as far as practicable, in its world relationships. He proposed also a program in civics for these grades similar to that in use in the city of Philadelphia. In concluding his paper he pointed out that somehow or other we must get two things in our history. First, we must get a group of historical facts. Second, we must teach our boys and girls what he referred to as certain historical skills. The latter would determine the kind of questions to be set in our examinations, and these in turn would determine the content of the course.

In considering the Junior High School, Professor Bourne pointed out that there were three problems

which must be kept in mind. The work through the sixth grade must be developed, extended and strengthened to enable the kind of survey proposed for the seventh and eighth grades. Can this be sufficiently depended upon to reduce the amount taught in the seventh and eighth years in the proposed scheme?

Again, if the results of the instruction in the first six grades were more successful, he feared that the work of the seventh and eighth grades would appear as a repetition. This situation and the one he outlined above constituted, in his judgment, a real dilemma.

As to the ninth grade proposals he was opposed to the alternative scheme covering the survey of European development to about 1650.

In criticizing the content of the senior high school courses, Doctor Sullivan strongly emphasized what he regarded as the two great tasks before the committee. The first of these was not to decide what courses should be offered, but what should be required. The other was to select the material which should go into the courses. What are we going to ask that boys and girls should know? This was the problem which had called into being the Committee on History in the Schools at the Charleston meeting of the Association. This work is vital, because we have not at the present time a sufficiently large corps of teachers to teach teachers how to handle the material as it should be handled. This was an important part of the work of this committee. He questioned whether it was wise to make a course for the Junior High School before our ideas about the Junior High School had crystallized. One of the pertinent questions in this connection was what kind of teachers are you going to put into the Junior High School.

In reporting upon the adaptation of the report to regional conditions, Professor Bonham presented an interesting survey of the South. Although he recognized that the courses must be shaped to meet local needs and conditions, he was most optimistic as to the success of the program there. His paper appears elsewhere.

The results of Professor Foster's questionnaire sent out with the approval of the committee to the membership of the New England History Association, seemed at first sight to bear very heavily upon the committee's proposals. Fear was expressed that certain tendencies of Prussian origin would be fostered by some of the courses proposed. It was also felt that some of the work planned was more ambitious than boys and girls of fourteen could well compass. It was pointed out later in the discussion, especially by Professor Ford, that the desire of the committee was not to foster any narrow provincialism or chauvinistic nationalism, but to enrich the courses in American history by injecting a larger European content and to draw the attention of boys and girls of secondary school age to the larger world. This was done with the express purpose of counteracting any provincialism which might result from too narrow a study of purely American conditions. The single fear of the committee had been that they had Europeanized

American history too much rather than too little. It was clear, however, that the proposals of the committee had not been sufficiently defined or elaborated to remove certain misapprehensions and misconceptions.

Professor James, the former chairman of the Committee of Eight, felt that the committee had aimed too high in the proposals for the first six grades. The committee had undertaken a task, which in his judgment would require at least two years more to complete. The Middle West had followed the report of the Committee of Five in the high school, and the report of the Committee of Eight except where the Junior High School had appeared. The problem was one of selection and emphasis in the early grades rather than a new course.

The international side of history needed emphasis in the secondary schools. He favored the introduction of a certain amount of Hispanic history and considerable attention to the Far East. This was necessary so long as Senators and Representatives in Congress speak "by the book." For the twelfth grade course this association should consult with other associations and organizations, such as the American Political Science Association and the American Economic Association.

In presenting the views of the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A.—with which committee he had been in consultation—Doctor Knowlton pointed out the substantial agreement attained on some of the most fundamental principles involved. Like the present committee they stood for a ninth year course in civics, two years of "socialized" history in the high school, and a twelfth year course in the problems of democracy, with some insistence upon a knowledge of the more elementary principles of economics, political science and sociology. They were ready to insist upon these four years as a minimum requirement in the social studies in the four-year high school. They accepted the idea of a richer content on the European side in the seventh and eighth grades, approving the designation American history in its world setting. They insisted, however, that this should begin in the sixth grade. They believed that the course as planned by the Committee of Eight should not be disturbed in view of its growing acceptance throughout the country. Then, too, they insisted that one year was inadequate for the period from 1607 to the present. They differed with the present committee, especially as to the program of the first six years. They were opposed to the half year of civics provided there, and thought the proposals set forth by Professor Johnston, in the absence of definite topical analysis and concrete instructions for the teachers as impossible of realization. Doctor Coulomb, in his paper, outlined their proposed alternatives. A very detailed and carefully planned course in civics was outlined for these early grades, furnishing the present committee with a very definite program in this field.

In the general discussion, which was necessarily limited on account of the lateness of the hour, Professor Schafer, on behalf of the committee, welcomed

the full and frank criticisms which had been voiced, noting that the policy of the committee had been from the very first that of open diplomacy. Mr. Bond made a plea that the committee prepare a program in history for the technical high schools. Another speaker noted the necessity of presenting a program in American schools from an American point of view. It was necessary to strike a balance between narrow provincialism and a broad cosmopolitanism. Objections were raised to the survey of European civilization proposed in the ninth grade. Important lessons were to be derived from the study of ancient history. Fundamental principles in civics could be very successfully taught in connection with this field was the contention of another speaker. Doctor Dawson called attention to Professor Bogardus' paper, insisting that it was an important contribution to the discussion. He was convinced that the result of all teaching was to bring the student to the point where the teacher was. School administrators must realize that history must be taught by some one other than the athletic director. The committee ought to make a statement calling the bluff of our administrators, ascertaining whether they were really willing to spend money enough on teachers' salaries to thoroughly Americanize our boys and girls.

APPLICATION TO CONDITIONS IN THE SOUTH

BY MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR., HAMILTON COLLEGE

It is a fundamental principle of public speaking, I believe, not to begin your remarks with either an apology or a joke. To-day I must violate that rule to the extent of beginning with an explanation, if not an apology. Lest any Southern teacher wonder why a man from a New York college was selected to discuss this topic, permit me to say that I am a Southerner, born and bred, and have done most of my teaching in the South. Only three months ago did I remove to Hamilton, after seven years in Louisiana.

At the outset, I wish to say emphatically, that I hope the plan outlined by the committee will be promptly adopted throughout the South, for this will mean a decided improvement over conditions now prevailing.

As in the West, the bulk of the Southern school population is rural, and state courses of study have been planned largely with a view to that fact. I anticipate no great difficulty in persuading the city schools to adopt the committee's proposals, with perhaps a few minor modifications. The trouble will be with the small town, village and country schools. Many of these are still one-teacher schools, more two- and three-teacher schools, where specialization in either a given subject or a given grade is impracticable. But the agitation for the adoption of this plan should, in my opinion, redound to the advantage of the campaigns now being waged by Southern educational leaders for more and better schools, with better trained teachers and more vitalized curricula. For these schools, it is probable that a condensation of the

plan must be made, by the selection of the more important topics, and omitting those which will not break the continuity of the course.

This suggests another difficulty. Not only are Southern teachers as much overworked as those elsewhere; in addition, too large a proportion are poorly prepared. Often only the holder of a second or third grade certificate can be secured at the salary offered. Persons competent to secure a first grade certificate frequently find their talents better remunerated in other lines than teaching. Consequently, unless the committee's syllabi for the elementary schools are very detailed, especially the parts of economic and civic import, it will be difficult, if not impossible, for many schools to adopt this plan.

While in a few of the Southern states stories of primitive and community life are begun in the first grade, in more, such work does not appear at all in the first four years—except, of course, in the city schools. Yet I do not consider this an important obstacle. Undoubtedly the busy primary teacher will be glad to receive a syllabus explaining such work, which she can embody in the language lessons, the special day programs and the supplementary reading. Where such stories are given, we find a wide diversity amongst the states. One prescribes stories of Indian and Eskimo life for the second grade; the adjoining state decrees stories relating to state and national holidays; a third prescribes hero and Bible stories. In some cases such work is given in the first three grades, omitted in the fourth year, and resumed in the fifth with the study of United States history through biography. It is clear, then, that the adoption of the committee's plan will have to overcome the inertia of habit, but will supply a desirable standardization. While I am far from wishing a dead uniformity of content, throughout the country, I feel strongly that better standardization is needed in the elementary schools. The fact that no text is used in the first four years, in most states, and in others, merely as a supplementary reader, makes it clear that there should be little difficulty in securing such re-arrangement of existing courses of study for these grades as will bring them into harmony with the committee's recommendations.

Most Southern states make the first systematic attempt at history study in the fifth grade. Here also variety is the rule. Several devote the entire year to state history; others combine state and national history; others devote the year to the history of the United States, or to history and civics. Compare this with the committee's proposal to spend the year on United States history from 1783 to 1877. Unless the syllabi for the first four years are such as to make a strong appeal to teachers, local and state boards of education, it is evident that the fifth grade pupils will not have the necessary preparation for the proposed work. Wherefore, I again urge the utmost care and particularly in planning these earlier syllabi.

From several years' experience in Southern public schools, as well as from observation and the study of educational reports I know that the school mortality

begins to be serious in the fifth grade. Hence it is very desirable that the committee's plan for "one full round of elementary American history with government" by the end of the sixth year, be adopted in the South. Remember, that compulsory education laws are quite recent in most Southern states, and as yet, for lack of funds and a strong public sentiment, not so well enforced as we hope to see them soon. Recent Federal statutes amply demonstrate that child-labor is one of the dragons in the path of the educational St. George. Since so many leave school after the sixth grade, so much greater the need for a well planned course of this kind.

Coming to the cycle for the junior high school, we are confronted with another difficulty, which will necessitate either re-arrangement or condensation of the committee's recommendation—perhaps both. In only a few Southern states, such as Kentucky, Florida and Mississippi, do we find eight years given to the elementary schools. In most, the high schools begin with the eighth grade and end with the eleventh, which means that high school freshmen in these states are both less mature and less well prepared than in other states. This will, of course, necessitate adaptations of the committee's report. Again, some of the rural high schools are for one year only, others for two and three, though four is the standard, and Southern educational authorities are working hard to develop the partial schools up to standard. The only solution for such schools, it would appear, would be to select such parts of the proposed program as they can give with best effect, in the light of their pupils' intention to quit school, or to transfer to a standard school.

Practically all Southern states prescribe some phase of United States history for the seventh grade. One demands just about what the committee recommends. Others begin United States history here; others continue it from the sixth grade and complete it. Most combine it with civics, while one, at least, combines it with state history, and another attempts to cover the whole of American history in this year. Evidently, the adoption of the committee's plan will be a long step forward.

While an earnest attempt has been made to follow the recommendations of the Committees of Seven and Five, a wide diversity is apparent in the curricula of Southern high schools. Though four years of history are offered, frequently only one is required, sometimes two. One state allows a choice of English or ancient history in the first year; another begins with state history. Still another offers the four blocks of the Committee of Seven in the proper order, but requires only the year of American history, plus one of foreign, while somewhere in the first three years, the pupil is supposed to devote a session to the study of the World War. Two years are given to United States history in one state; another, beginning with English history, offers medieval and modern in the second year, American in the third, and elementary economics and sociology in the fourth. From these random selections it is clear that high school history work is

neither systematic nor scientific in this section, as a whole. From my own knowledge, I can state that too often the history work is divided out amongst the faculty, specialists in other branches. Oftener one teacher has to give both history and English or history and Latin. For these reasons, it is most important that the widest possible publicity be given the committee's report. I trust that a vigorous effort will be made to bring it before all Southern state, county and city school officials, conferences of history teachers, state educational associations, Southern school journals, and every summer school in the South.

Finally, a word about textbooks. It is evident, I take it, that for some of the committee's suggested courses, unless the syllabi are very full and detailed, special texts will have to be written, particularly along the lines of economics and social science. Permit me to urge with all the earnestness I possess that the utmost pains be taken to secure the writing of such texts, in accord with the committee's views, which shall be so far superior to anything else on the market that no school board will dare reject them. (Of course, I am not seeking to impose the same text on all schools; there should be two or three of these superfine texts in each division.) In many Southern states excellent texts are now in use. But sometimes it happens that a state board adopts a text because it was written by a fellow-citizen, or published by a local house. Again, authors have felt it necessary to cater to sectional bias. I recall that about ten years ago, an otherwise good text was printed in two editions, Northern and Southern, in which the dogma of state rights and secession was treated in opposite ways. Happily, that sort of influence is disappearing. There is a strong urge, throughout the land, for the making of Americans first, but the danger of having an excellent program wrecked by worthless textbooks must not be ignored.

THE NEW COURSE OF STUDY AND THE TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOLS.

BY F. S. BOGARDUS, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY,
INDIANA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

What the committee had in mind when it assigned me this subject, I do not know, but it could hardly have found a more ambiguous term than "Teachers' Training Schools." Upon reflection it would appear that there are nearly as many institutions answering to this description as there are varieties of commercial product that are associated in the public mind with the number "57." There are the so-called "County Normals," private normal schools, city training schools, state normal schools, colleges with departments of education, and universities with schools of education. In each of these major groups may be detected several sub-groups. These sub-groups are distinguished by differences in their standards of admission, scholarship, length of course, requirements for graduation, and by differences in equipment, as well as other differences too numerous to mention here.

Let us bear in mind that the name "normal school" is claimed by as many different types and grades of institutions as is the name "college," or the name "university," and let it go at that. In this paper I shall use the term, "Teachers' Training School," to mean any institution that gives training for service in the public schools. Now, although teachers' training schools differ so much among themselves, and largely because of that very fact, I wish to indicate what I consider to be the necessary elements of organization for the training of teachers of history for our public schools. First, there should be a department of history in which the teachers know history and know how to teach it. Here the best academic and professional standards should be maintained. Second, in this department there should be a teacher or teachers whose main interest is in the *teaching process* as studied by the prospective teachers. Third, there should be a training school in which observation and practice is carried on. Of course, there should be adequate library and other material equipment.

It is pretty well agreed that at least three years' study of history in normal schools or college should be required of prospective high school teachers. This should be an irreducible minimum. For the grade teacher such a standard is out of the question. Just before the war and during its early years some of the strongest normal schools were attempting to establish four year courses for grade teachers. While at first the courses gave some signs of success, the fact that they required as long a period of preparation as did the courses preparing for high school positions, and did not carry an equal salary, either caused the students to shift over to the courses preparing for high school or to abandon their intention to become trained teachers. The result is that we are reverting to three-year and two-year courses for grade teachers. This is deplorable, but I do not see how the situation is to be remedied until the taxpaying public finds out that a grade teacher needs as much training and is worth as much money as a high school teacher. Practically, it means that the average grade teacher does well if she gets two or three term courses in history, and cannot be well trained in anything.

On the side of the teaching process many institutions give courses in the teaching of history or special method in history. This is an advance over the older practice of placing all study of method in one department. It was not uncommon to find one teacher who was responsible for all the instruction in method, both general method and the special method of the different subjects. It seems now pretty clearly established that the time for that kind of thing is past. Training institutions are placing the study of the teaching process in history in the department of history, and this is as it should be. Usually a member of the department who believes that there is a science of education and that the technique of history teaching should properly receive attention is delegated to carry on this important work. It is his business to direct the attention of the pupil teachers to the principles and problems involved in history teaching, and to

bridge the gap between the department and the practice school. I shall refer again to his work.

At this point a question of the first importance arises—to what extent should preparation for teaching in the grades and in the high school be differentiated? My answer is just to the extent that psychological differences between younger and older children demand it. In the grades the work is necessarily descriptive and narrative. It deals with particular facts, and the images are highly concrete. In the advanced grades the facts are more abstract, and are presented more in the form of general concepts. The study is more analytical, more critical, more reflective. On the basis of this difference there should be at least two courses in the teaching of history, a course for prospective grade teachers and another course for prospective high school teachers. A bulletin of the Bureau of Education, No. 12, 1916, advises going even further than this, and calls for a grouping along the lines of the lower grades, the upper grades, and the high school. Further, it advises that pupil teachers be restricted in their choice of electives to subjects specifically preparatory to the grade of teaching selected. I am not ready to go that far in restricting choice of electives, but in general the idea is sound. See History Teachers' Association of Middle States and Maryland, 1906, 1915.

No real teacher training can be carried on without work in observation and practice teaching. This work should be under the general supervision of the history department. The professor of the teaching of history should be a sort of liaison officer to make sure that the theory in the department and the practice in the training school are kept in the closest harmony. The critic teacher must not only know what the department is teaching in the methods classes, but should be sympathetic with its principles and plans. The instructor in the teaching of history should follow his pupils to the practice school, should study their work, and should check up results. In all this discussion I am assuming that teacher training schools *do* require both observation and practice of their pupils. If there be any that do not I am sorry for them. I should as soon try to make bricks without straw, indeed a little rather.

Now, I should like to revert to the work of the professor of the teaching of history, and indicate some of the subjects that should be dealt with and some of the results that should be secured. First, there should be an unremitting effort to see that the pupil acquires the scientific conception of history. Unless the ideas of development, continuity and unity, are kept everlastingly to the front, he may complete his course thinking that history is a meaningless hodgepodge of capriciously chosen episodes. Without this scientific view of the subject history renounces its claim to serious study. Next, attention should be given to the technique of study. Many college students are woefully ignorant in this particular. The pupil teachers should be taught how to study and how to be sure that their own pupils know how to study. Then come such subjects as use of maps, collateral reading, place and

use of biography, source material, questioning, making of outlines, and notebooks, the study of social groups, the gathering and sorting of local history material, and lastly examinations and tests. The principle to follow here is that of putting everything to the test of practice. The pupil teacher should be asked to do everything that his pupils will be asked to do later. He should be asked to prepare a set of examination questions of which, say, only one-third are memory questions, he should be asked to read and check a map, he should prove that he knows how to use a syllabus, and how to construct an outline, he should be given a definite textbook to criticize, and should prove that he knows how to make use of collateral reading material in connection with a given lesson unit. The thought is that no pupil is ready for practice until he has done these things, no matter how glibly he may be able to talk about them.

Now, what has been said up to this point presents a view of the organization necessary for the training of history teachers with some slight consideration of what should be done in getting a group of pupil teachers ready for practice. How will this organization and method be affected by the proposed course of study? Or, rather, how will current practice in the training of history teachers be modified by the adoption of the proposed course?

First, it probably will be agreed that only trained teachers can handle the course satisfactorily. It requires a scientific knowledge of the subject that only the trained teacher can be expected to have. Of course, many untrained teachers will try to handle it, and they should be offered every help that can be devised, but the difference between the skilled craftsman and the one who works by rule of thumb cannot be obliterated by any such help. However, any teacher training school that undertakes to fit people for history teaching without an organization very close to what has been pictured cannot hope to meet with much success. This means that normal schools, colleges, and universities that give only courses in history as such with only incidental attention to the training side, or that do not have adequate courses in observation and practice in grades and high school, or that do not have actual supervision of practice work by the department of history and hearty cooperation between the department and the practice school must get busy and remedy these defects if they hope to give the kind of training required by this course.

May I give a list of the outstanding features of the course? They are: First, emphasis of the scientific view of the subject; second, the use of the home community as the center of all study; third, a frank acceptance of the new position of America as a world power; fourth, the emphasis placed in the earlier grades upon social and economic matters.

As to the first feature, emphasis on the scientific view of the subject, the teacher training schools are already indoctrinated with this view, and are making commendable progress in this respect. The acceptance of the new position of America as a world power is bound to modify many of the standard courses now

given, and will make necessary the introduction of certain new courses. These matters can be taken care of very largely by adjustment and rearrangement. In the same way the attention paid to social and economic problems will require the introduction of new courses in some cases, but is mainly a matter of shifted emphasis. Doctor Schafer's statement makes the matter perfectly clear. He says, "The great objectives in the course is a practical training for the exercise of citizenship. But in our country at the present time the conditions and the problems in which citizenship functions are, probably nine times out of ten, social, economic, political, and international problems. The citizen should be primarily interested in human welfare as affecting his fellow man." I may be mistaken, but I am inclined to think the work of the ninth grade calls for a sort of composite course given in cooperation by the departments of history, economics, and geography. The giving of such a course would have a most desirable effect in reducing the departmental separatism now found in so many institutions.

An oft-repeated criticism of teacher training schools is that they are lacking in productive scholarship. It is a painful and humiliating thing to admit that the charge is to a large extent justified, and yet it must be admitted. The amount of independent study and research in these schools is pitifully small. The reasons for this deplorable situation I shall not attempt to discuss, but I must say that it is not lack of ability or scholarship on the part of the teachers that is responsible. The important thing is that the proposed course of study places upon the history teachers in these schools a great task of original investigation and preparation of material, and thus calls for productive effort.

The second grade work consists of a study of the home community in its historical aspects. But how am I to teach prospective teachers how to do this unless I myself make a study of the evolution and present life of some community? I must gather the material, evaluate and criticize it and get it into usable form. Then and only then am I ready to show a pupil teacher how to make a community study such as is called for in the second grade. This will be a piece of genuine research for me, and at the same time will give the pupil teacher his first understanding of what history really is. Here we may have a piece of productive work that may easily be the beginning of a new era in the teacher training schools.

The committee will not be able to furnish the material for this local community study. Neither can the textbook makers. The best they can do is to furnish suggestions as to how to get the materials and model or type lessons as to what to do with it. It is up to the teacher training schools with the help of state authorities and county and municipal officers to direct the gathering of the material and to help in making it available to teachers.

The use of the community life as a basis of interpretation runs through the whole course, and is its most salient feature. No matter in what grade

the teacher is working from the second to the twelfth he should always be tying his subject back to the life of the community. It will be the particular business of the training schools everlastingly to show the pupil teacher how this is done, to have him do it, and to have him know why he does it. We must give up the quantitative idea of history teaching and work for significance.

The one great thing the course will do for the teacher training schools is that it will offer them an inducement to break away from the well worn path of precedent and tradition. With energy and bold resolution, in the true American spirit, the spirit of the pioneer, they must attack the problems of classification and organization, of technique and procedure.

THE STANDPOINT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION'S COMMITTEE

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON.

I feel very much as did a friend of mine who was asked to take the place of a bishop before a colored audience. They had been looking forward to the occasion, as their little church had never been so honored. For some reason the bishop could not be present. In introducing my friend, the chairman expressed his regret that the bishop had disappointed them, calling attention at some length to the anticipated pleasure of being addressed by so great a personage. Suddenly, however, he bethought himself that it devolved upon him to say something nice on behalf of the speaker of the evening, and he sought to relieve his embarrassment by saying, "We are indeed sorry not to have the bishop with us, but we can congratulate ourselves that we have the bishop's supplement." I seem to stand in some such relation both to the present program and to the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies of which I have recently been appointed a member. Sub-committees of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship and their committee have been engaged in an interchange of views with a view to reaching a working agreement. You are to think of me now for the next few minutes in a new role, not as secretary of the Committee on History, but as voicing essentially the point of view of this older committee.

Let me begin by noting the points in which the N. E. A. Committee is in substantial agreement with the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. They believe with the latter that the time has come for insisting upon a minimum requirement in history and the social sciences. Since the appearance of their last report they have been constantly asked by teachers and administrators what they would recommend if only one or two subjects could be given. At the time they made their report they did not feel justified in insisting upon any such requirement. Their report was more or less tentative in character. They are convinced, however, that the time has come for fixing such a requirement, and they would be satisfied with a ninth year course in Community Civics, half to one year, preferably the longer period, devoted to the study of the problems of democracy, involving

a knowledge of the principles of economics, political science and sociology, and two years of socialized history in between.

They accept the position taken by this committee that the teaching of history involves the inculcation of a particular method as well as insistence upon a certain body of subject matter.

While insisting with this committee that the social and economic elements as well as the political aspects of the past shall be given due prominence, they agree with the Committee on History that whatever history is presented shall be presented *wie es eigentlich gewesen ist*; that there shall be no thought, for example, of teaching history backwards. There have been some misconceptions in certain quarters on this score, and I therefore call your special attention to this point of agreement.

Again they believe that interpretative ideas should form the core of the courses; that courses in history must be built up about certain definite, worth-while ideas suggested by the subject matter.

They also agree that at certain points in the course more or less definite contacts shall be established with the problems of citizenship, notably in the sixth year, again in the ninth, and finally in the last year of the four-year high school.

They conceive of the function of the Junior high school as essentially that of broadening the already widening horizon of the boy or girl—a process which naturally begins about the seventh grade, and of which the school program must take cognizance. The conception of the Committee on History of a broad course involving a world survey appeals to them very strongly.

They accept the principle that there shall be no gaps between the student's knowledge and the life he enters upon leaving school, especially in its application to the work proposed for the tenth and eleventh years in Modern World History and in American History. This would involve, in their thought, systematic work in current events.

Let me now turn to those points in which they differ from the present committee. The most fundamental of these differences has to do with the work of the first six years, but may I call your attention to the fact that these grades were not originally included within the scope of their report. Doctor Coulomb, in his paper, has already outlined their proposals in the changes which he recommended. They make an entirely different grouping of the grades, which is as follows: I-III, IV-V, VI. The course is entirely different, as you will note, from that proposed by the committee and suggested by Professor Johnston.

Again, when it comes to the Junior High School, they do not believe that it is possible to cover American history from 1607 to the present, with the world setting proposed, in a single year. They would, therefore, retain the European background in the seventh year proposed by the Committee of Eight, carrying it as far as 1607; and devote three years to American history in its world setting. This would mean carrying the course in the seventh year to 1815 or to 1830,

as Doctor Coulomb suggested. They do not believe that organized government can be taught in the first six years, and are entirely opposed to the half year of civics suggested by the committee for the sixth year.

They believe that the work of the ninth year in the social studies should be in the field of civics, and they would not therefore offer the alternative course proposed by the committee for this year in a general survey of the European field to about 1650.

These, then, are the fundamental differences between their proposals and the tentative program put forward by the committee in the June HISTORICAL OUTLOOK. It remains for me but to mention briefly their proposals for a course in civics running through the first nine grades. The Committee on History did not plan definitely for this, although insisting that adequate civic and moral instruction should be given in each grade. They have been looking for suggestions covering comprehensive work in this field. The course offered by the N. E. A. committee may be summarized as the teaching of civic virtues in the first three grades, the inculcation of the idea of co-operation in the next three, and the idea of organization in Grades VII-IX. "Community" co-operation is stressed in Grades IV and V; "Industrial" co-operation in Grade VI; "Community" organization in Grades VII-VIII; "Industrial" organization in Grade IX.

A careful study of their point of view will convince you, I am sure, as it has me, that the future is most promising for a *rapprochement* between the two committees, and that we can co-operate to the fullest extent, offering to the schools of the country one program for their acceptance.

FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE COMMITTEE OF EIGHT

Prof. James A. James, of Northwestern University, continued the discussion, saying in part: The preceding speakers have covered so adequately the main points of the program presented by the committee that there remains little for me to add. I desire, especially, to commend the plan outlined for emphasizing in the ninth and twelfth grades such economic and social topics as are met with in every day life, and may be adapted to pupils of these ages. There are many topics of this sort upon which the average business or professional man has circumscribed views. The emphasis placed upon America in its world relations is likewise most satisfactory. An expression used in "The Education of Henry Adams" is too frequently true to-day. He wrote: "The average Congressman has nothing to ask save offices and nothing to offer except the views of his district. . . . The average Senator is handicapped by his own importance." We must look then to the teachers of history for assistance in developing among our citizens that breadth of view regarding America's place as a world power which is in keeping with the new day.

While I have made no attempt to list all of the features of the report with which I am in complete accord, I turn to some of the criticisms which may be added to those stated by the previous speakers. As I study the report, I cannot but conclude that in following the program sponsored by Prof. Henry Johnson, the committee has sanctioned a course of study in which the standard is beyond that of most of the teachers who are presumed to profit by its use. Granted that Professor Johnson and possibly the teachers trained by him could carry out such a program, we must think of the multitude of teachers who are lacking in adequate preparation. As an illustration, we find in the sixth grade that one-half the year is to be devoted to the study of "how we are governed." While it is beyond contention that some of the functions of government might be understood by pupils of this age, it would, I believe, be futile to attempt a half year's program, at this point, in the majority of the elementary schools.

We are told that pupils will be induced to go on to the work of the junior high school when they become aware of the content of the courses in those grades, and that it is desirable, therefore, to place the study of the European background for American history in the seventh and eighth grades. One of the significant features of the report of the Committee of Eight was the outline for the use of this material in the sixth grade. Judged by reports from superintendents and teachers this feature is now generally approved.

As chairman of the Committee of Eight, I do not appear with a brief for their report. At the meeting of the American Historical Association in Buffalo, a number of modifications to that report were considered. With some of these suggestions, the committee was in complete accord. We urged upon the officers of the Association that a revised edition of the report should be issued, or at any rate that the bibliographical material should be brought down to the present. It did not then seem feasible to adopt this recommendation. I am of the opinion that the present committee would do well to adopt this course of procedure in preparing a workable program for the first eight grades.

The need for drastic changes is in the courses for the senior high school. Here the committee does well to emphasize the study of the modern world, of advanced American history, and the consideration of social, economic, and political principles and problems. Has not the time come when the demand should be made that these should be required courses in all secondary schools?

The committee would likewise be of great service in furthering the study of history if they accompany their final report with a complete syllabus in which shall be found not only bibliographical data, but in which there shall be suggestions to teachers on the topics to be especially emphasized or the methods best suited for their development.

**THE PROPOSED COURSE OF STUDY FOR
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS**

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA.
BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D., DISTRICT

It is obviously an impossible task to discuss adequately in ten minutes a proposed course of study in history for the elementary schools. The best that can be done is to suggest what changes may seem to be desirable from the standpoint of experience in teaching history in the grades without spending much time in justifying the suggested changes by actual evidence of their desirability.

In the first place it would seem that a re-statement of the aim as given in the tentative report is desirable. To say that the object of history-teaching is the making of good citizens is saying exactly what everybody else says about the aim of the respective branch of knowledge in which they may be specially interested. I believe that a mathematician would tell you that the aim of the study of algebra was, in the final analysis, to make a better citizen of the student. I would suggest that the aim be made more specific, and that a brief statement, for example, of the aim as suggested by Professor Johnson, that the object of studying history is to enable the student better to understand or comprehend the society and civilization of which he is a member, is to be preferred to the aim as stated in the proposed new course.

Before proceeding further with the discussion of the content of the course, I desire to call your attention to some of the practical difficulties that the elementary schools face.

One of these difficulties is what we may call the average public school pupil. Many of these pupils, especially in our large cities, are the children of immigrants. Their command of English is small, whether we think of their understanding of the teaching or of their attempts at expression. These, as well as many others, whose forbears have been Americans for several generations, can be taught not much more than simple groups of facts, and, at most, the least complicated situations which depend on a comprehension of related groups of facts. If you knew the typical grade pupil, I think you would be startled at the task in American history that the committee has set for him in the proposed course. I refer particularly to the three hundred years of American history in its world relationships set for the eighth year. No doubt your sons and daughters, and the sons and daughters of your acquaintances can do this and more. But what about the child of the immigrant who lives in one or two rooms with the rest of the family of a dozen or so, where the only thing in English in the home is what the child brings from school.

Nor can you tell what can be done in the average school by what is done with a school attended by a more or less select group of pupils.

On the other hand, the report does not do justice to the ability of the child, when it puts the European background into the Seventh Grade from the Sixth,

where the old Committee of Eight report placed it. We have found in Philadelphia, and I know the same thing is true in many other places, that we can easily teach the European background in the sixth year. In fact, it is usually the best prepared lesson. There are several reasons for this. In the first place, when you crowd over two thousand years of history into a year, the topics are limited to those that absolutely tie up to things that the child is experiencing every day. Greek art is among the ornaments of his school room. His study of word building tells him that we got much of our English speech from the language of the Romans. And besides, the teacher has the opportunity to select the most dramatic incidents that are typical of Roman history. To trail the material now in the fifth grade over into the sixth, and to put the European background in the seventh, has only the justification of convenience in fitting the new course to the new 6-3-3 division of education below the college. Since many pupils now leave in the sixth year, this was apparently deemed an additional reason for beginning a new cycle in the seventh year. I do not believe that such a concession to the 6-3-3 plan is necessary.

The Junior High School does not represent a change in the material of instruction so much as it means a change in method. Besides, the whole tendency of compulsory school legislation is to keep the child in school until he is sixteen. This would carry practically all except mental defectives into the eighth year. We have proved that we can teach successfully the European background in the sixth year. Why not make a few changes in the fifth year? Keep the European background in the sixth year, and take the seventh and eighth years for American history? It would seem a shame to waste on informal history one year in which good historical work can be done.

A second difficulty with putting the new course into effect is what we may call the average teacher of the American public school.

While entirely agreeing with Professor Shafer's proverb which he quoted in his letter to the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, "What man has done, man can do," permit the suggestion that what Professor Johnson can do, the average immature and untrained American school teacher can not do. And these people are in general not only untrained in either the material methods of history teaching; they are comparatively untrained in anything.

May I call your attention to the fact that, out of approximately 600,000 teachers in American schools, 100,000 are under twenty years of age; that 80,000 have had no education beyond the eighth year; that one-half of them have had no education beyond the high school, and that another 300,000, not necessarily the same individuals as the last group, have had no professional preparation for teaching. Those trained in high school only frequently have had but a three-year high school education on top of eight seven-month elementary school years. It seems to be an unwise move to recommend a course of study for gen-

eral use in our schools that is so far beyond the teaching ability of the majority of our teachers that it will either prove a flat failure in practice, or else that it will tempt us into deluding ourselves with the idea that we are doing history work with all our elementary pupils that in fact is only being done with a select few out of twenty million.

As to the content of the course, in addition to objections already cited, I desire to submit the following suggestions, largely as the result of a conference recently held by a group interested in history in the grades.

In the first place, while there should be close correlation between history and civics, they should be separate as courses. Civics represents, to a large extent, applied history, but it is our belief that to fuse them would be unfortunate for both. The protagonist for civics would be tempted to neglect the history, and the teacher interested in history would place civics on a seat far to the rear.

In the fifth grade, stories of incidents should be included along with biographical stories. The ideal would be, I think, a series of verbal tableaux representing typical scenes from our history in which our great men would appear as actors. The general method would be much like that followed by Carlyle in his French Revolution. Biography tends to become too didactic. In a recent attempt to measure the success of history teaching, a fifth-year class was told a mythical story, and a true story about Benjamin Franklin, and were asked which was true, which they liked best, and why? They had no difficulty in deciding which was true, but most of them liked the fairy tale. When it came to the reason why, one boy said, and his answer was typical of a large group, "I am sick and tired of hearing about great men." Admitting that this boy's answer is, to an extent, a condemnation of the method used by his teacher, it is an illustration of the difficulties found in putting a course of study across to the pupils. I might add that I know the teacher and her work, and she is, in my opinion, above the average in general ability.

In the sixth grade retain the European background with such changes in detail as may seem desirable. I would suggest here that numerous suggestions be incorporated showing the teacher how this history ties up with that of the United States to-day.

Instead of putting formal American history in the eighth year only, start it in the seventh year, at 1607 or later, taking it down to 1815, 1820, or better yet, 1830. Let your world relationships take but little time in the seventh year, but go rather thoroughly into them in the eighth year. This can easily be done by eliminating or reducing in content some of the topics in American history, such as slavery, that have become dead issues.

In the ninth year, carry along the history as thus far covered, by a course in current events, including such topics as the labor question; government regula-

tion of the individual; the problems of transportation, and of financial reconstruction, etc. At the same time greater emphasis should be placed on civics. In any event provision must be made for the fact that for many years to come the old 8-4 division of the grades will obtain in a large majority of the elementary and high schools of this country.

With respect to any proposed course, one of two things will happen. Either it will be a course possible to be taught in the schools under present conditions, in which case it will slowly be adopted by superintendents and Boards of Education, or else it will be so impractical that either the local modifications will be so extensive as seriously to affect its coherence as a course, or the new plan will be ignored altogether.

If the latter becomes true, then the idea of a well-graded continuous course, extending through to the senior college year will fail completely for lack of an adequate foundation in the elementary schools for the work in the secondary schools and colleges.

The course as recommended is as follows:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

HISTORY

Grades I-III

Stories from history and mythology grouped around the celebration of holidays and festivals, and describing pioneer life and the life of primitive peoples.

CIVICS *Grades I-IV*

Civic virtues: Obedience, courtesy, helpfulness, punctuality, truthfulness, fair play, thoroughness, honesty, courage, self-control, perseverance, thrift, etc.; taught through stories, poems, songs, pictures, games, dramatization, and various pupil activities; object, habit formation, that shall both cultivate the civic virtues and afford a basis of social experience for the interpretation of new social situations as they shall arise.

Grades IV-V

Important historical incidents and biographical stories from the history of America.

Grades III-V

Community co-operation: those who furnish us food, clothing, shelter, medical aid, light, transportation, protection, etc.; taught through pupil observation of the life around them, trips, reports, and class discussions; object—to learn the service rendered by the community, the interdependence of each member of the community on the others, and the co-operation that alone makes that interdependence possible.

Grade VI

Important historical incidents and biographical stories from the history of Europe.

Grade VI.

Industrial co-operation: A study of community service through occupations, the qualifications for each, and the mutual relations that should prevail between employer and employee.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (OR UPPER ELEMENTARY)

Grades VII-VIII

The United States in its world relationships.

Grades VII-VIII

Community organization: Emphasis upon community organization — local, state and national—for common purposes; co-operation through voluntary and governmental organization; leadership and the control of leadership.

Grade IX

Current events to carry along the history thus far covered. Emphasis in this grade on civics.

Grade IX

Industrial organization: The development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work; of the social value and interdependence of all occupations; of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life; of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community, of how government aids the citizen in his vocational life; and of how the young citizen may prepare himself for a definite occupation.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HISTORY

SOCIAL SCIENCE

Grade X

The Modern World: World history since the middle of the seventeenth century, with emphasis upon political, social, and economic development, showing progress towards world democracy. Attention should be given to the origins of the institutions found in the seventeenth century.

Grade XI

The Modern World: United States history during the national period, treated topically, and with critical comparisons with institutions and tendencies in other countries.

Grade XII

The Modern World: The problems of democracy, leading into the elements of Sociology, Economics, Political Science, and Practical Government—inductive method.

"Every one on the other side of St. George's Channel is sick of the name of Ireland, every one on this side is sick of the stupidity and misunderstanding on the other" is the rather pessimistic introduction to a very interesting and sympathetic account of "the wearisome Irish question"—"In Ireland To-day." By a Southern Loyalist. (*Blackwood's* for December.)

Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In his article on "Council Government in Germany" (*Contemporary Review* for November), George Young says: "The Council system in Germany has in three months indeed covered the course that took our Parliamentary system three centuries. . . . If we were to translate the Council movement of to-day in terms of the Parliamentary movement of seven centuries ago, we might say that, before our present democracy could begin, industry had to be nominally socialized. The Councils are as essential to Germany to-day as the Commons were to us a century ago."

F. Aurelio Palmieri has given an interesting account of Mikhail Alexandrovitch Bakunin in his "Theorist of the Russian Revolution" (*Catholic World* for December), and also of the political conditions under which he worked. In conclusion, he summarizes the situation by saying: "It has been clearly shown by the history of the revolutionary movement that material egotism is at the bottom and in the heart of all socialistic upheavals."

"India: A Passing Study," by Lyman B. Jackes (*Canadian Magazine* for December), contains some most interesting illustrations of temples in India and also of the Hindu people.

In writing on "Chinese National Sentiment" (*Asia* for December) John Dewey says: "Every one knows that the chief instrumentality of foreign encroachment in China has been finance. Russia first saw the policy of conquest by bank and railway and other nations joined in. . . . The question of finance remains pivotal in any positive national policy for China. Even if China had the money to take care of her own developments . . . the denationalized customs work against loaning it to the Government."

A report of the Commission on Responsibilities (of which he was the presiding officer) is given by Secretary Robert Lansing in *The Forum* for December, entitled, "The Trial of the Kaiser," in which he discusses the legal aspects of the charges against that monarch.

The Mexican situation to-day, according to H. Grahame Richards ("Mexican Anarchy," *Nineteenth Century* for November), "presents a gloomy and threatening future. It is a disheartening record of persistent violation of almost every right known to justice, national and international."

In the *Nuova Antologia* for July is an interesting account of the work of the late Professor Pasquale Villari, and in the *Nuova Scuola Italiana* by Professor Giovanni Calò, in which the author pays a high tribute to the work of his great colleague both as a teacher and as a writer of history.

"The first step in any comprehensive plan for European reconstruction is to help Russia. This vast territory with its unexampled resources and its many millions of inhabitants, is to-day suffering from a disease that is all the more dangerous because it has been allowed to go on so long unchecked. . . . If . . . American capital and American enterprise are directed to the restoration of Russian agriculture . . . Europe can be saved. The only Europeans who . . . know how to deal with Russia are the Germans. Lack ing American assistance and support . . . the new Russia will turn to the Germans for technical and organized service," says Jerome Landfield in an article on "America and Europe in Reconstruction" (*January North American Review*).

Department of Social Studies

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH

The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship

THOMAS M. BALLIET, Chairman
HARRY H. MOORE, Secretary

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, Vice-Chairman
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A DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES

BY THOMAS M. BALLIET.

With the co-operation of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship plans to present in these pages articles and other contributions in the field of social studies. Many high schools are now offering courses in these subjects, which in most cases are given in the History Department. History, it may be said, is a record of human actions and achievements. At the present time, these actions are concerned chiefly with economic, political and social problems. Current history is in large measure a record of the various efforts of men to solve their economic, political and social difficulties.

The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship aims to encourage the inclusion of social studies in school curricula. It leaves no other committees and commissions the problems of determining the content of the various courses and of making a place for these studies. But it believes that, without interfering or overlapping with other existing agencies, it possesses a definite and important function. This is the distribution of information concerning developments in the field of social studies and the collection of the results of various efforts. The committee seeks to impress upon every high school in the country the necessity of courses in these subjects for a satisfactory preparation of their students in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. It also encourages some consideration of these topics in elementary schools, particularly during what are now known as the Junior High School years. When these aims are accomplished, the "raison d'être" of the committee will have disappeared and the committee will cease to function.

The movement for the inclusion of social studies in the curriculum of the public schools started about ten years ago as part of a more general movement for the reorganization of secondary education. A feeling had developed among educators that the college entrance requirements were a considerable hindrance to the most effective high school teaching. High schools were compelled to adjust their curricula to the demands of the colleges rather than to the needs of their pupils in meeting the actual conditions of the outside world.

The first tangible expression of the desire to remedy this situation was the appointment in 1911 by the National Education Association of a committee on the

articulation of high school work with college entrance requirements. Clarence D. Kingsley, who was named chairman of this committee, obtained a leave of absence from the New York City schools for six months in order to make a careful study of the problem. During this time he acted as a special agent of the United States Bureau of Education, which, it may be said in passing, has co-operated very effectively in all this work. Mr. Kingsley presented his report at the Salt Lake City conference of the N. E. A. in 1913. It was published under the title, "College Entrance Requirements," as Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 7.

About the same time, the National Education Association appointed a larger committee to consider the reorganization of secondary education in a more comprehensive way. It sought to outline a program of secondary education which would meet the real needs of the pupils, and at the same time maintain the standards of scholarship which the colleges required. Sub-committees of this commission were appointed on a wide variety of subjects.

The sub-committee on social studies, of which Thomas Jesse Jones was the chairman, and Arthur W. Dunn the secretary, presented a preliminary report at the meeting of the N. E. A. in Salt Lake City. This was included, along with preliminary reports of various other sub-committees in Bulletin No. 41 of the Bureau of Education, entitled "The Reorganization of Secondary Education." In 1915, as a further development of the work of this committee, a separate bulletin on "Community Civics," prepared by Messrs. Arthur W. Dunn, F. W. Carrier, J. Lynn Barnard, and C. D. Kingsley, was published. This was followed in 1916 by the report on Social Sciences in Secondary Education which appeared as Bulletin No. 28 of the Bureau of Education. This report is undoubtedly the most important contribution yet made in this field. It outlines a program of social studies in the high school, and suggests ways in which some of these topics may be considered in the elementary schools. This program aims to provide students with a thorough preparation for meeting the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

From these beginnings the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship received its inspiration. The work which it plans to do with the co-operation of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* is based very largely on the principles and ideas set forth by these pioneers.

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP.

BY LAURENCE C. STAPLES.

During recent years, and particularly since the beginning of the war, the range of economic and social problems which the individual citizen is called upon to face has increased with an accelerated pace. Questions which had hardly been raised a few years ago are now in the realm of practical politics. A considerable group of citizens is demanding public ownership of the railways; another suggests governmental control of prices; another a comprehensive system of social insurance. The question of the right to strike has assumed tremendous importance for the individual citizen as well as for the state. There are not wanting those who attack the wages system itself. It is not merely the details of public administration and social welfare which are concerned. The very foundations of our democratic institutions are shaken; the permanence of the present social order is involved. Lines of cleavage between groups are drawn so sharply that social unity is threatened. It is a time when sober and intelligent thinking on these many questions is essential for the preservation of our national life. Unless we can proceed to their solution on a solid foundation of facts, and be guided by sound principles of social policy, our present democratic government cannot long endure. Anarchy or despotism on the part of one or another class is the inevitable consequence.

FOUR DEFICIENCIES.

That our voters are ill-prepared to meet this crisis is apparent. In one or more of four ways they are unfitted to guide or to participate in the direction of this democratic state at a time when blundering methods may prove particularly costly.

1. *Information*.—There is a general ignorance of the fundamental facts and principles upon which a sound social and economic policy can be based. Take, for instance, the question of unemployment. The average citizen, as long as he is permanently employed himself, hardly realizes the existence of this problem. He is inclined to consider that unemployment is due, by and large, to some fault in the individual concern. "There are always jobs for those who really want them," expresses his attitude. With such a limitation in his knowledge, what is his attitude toward government employment exchanges or unemployment insurance likely to be?

2. *Interest*.—A large proportion of the people are not only ignorant on these problems, but quite indifferent also. No matter how much they are concerned as individuals, they are willing to "let others do the worrying"—and make the decision! How many elections in this country each year are decided by those who do not go to the polls! It is safe to say that much bad legislation would be prevented, and the passage of many good bills hastened if the negligent ones could be awakened to their civic responsibilities. Furthermore, many persons evidently believe that they have discharged their entire duty by voting. They do

not form any part of that potentially powerful agency of social control, public opinion.

3. *Critical Capacity*.—The average citizen, chiefly on account of his lack of information, bases his judgment of any problem on the judgments of others. The danger of this proceeding at a time when the art of propaganda is developed as highly as it is to-day is unmistakable. The only safeguard for clear thinking on social, economic and political problems is a critical spirit, fortified by a supply of fundamental facts.

4. *Social Consciousness*.—Perhaps the most serious danger of all is due to the lack of social consciousness, of a philosophy of conduct which is based, not on individual prosperity alone, but on the welfare of the whole community. The complexity of our modern economic organization puts almost overwhelming power into the hands of particular groups. Whether this power is used openly as in strikes or in more subtle but perhaps more effective ways, it constitutes a serious danger for our democracy. Its use must be governed by a sound sense of social solidarity, of a common interest in the welfare of the social unit. Citizenship in a democracy requires a democratic philosophy of life.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR TEACHING CITIZENSHIP.

This situation—the lack of informed, interested, critical and socially-minded citizens to meet the exceedingly important and complex social, economic and political problems—has led to the formation of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship. The committee believes that the key to the solution of this difficulty, as of many others, lies in education. It puts no trust in any quicker method for the solution of our social and economic problems. It realizes that for the present we must expect to pay the price for our past negligence, and stumble on our way as best we can. But gradually, by the careful preparation of our children in the schools for their duties as citizens and neighbors—and only in this way—the preservation and progress of our democracy will be assured.

ITS OBJECTS.

The objects of the committee, to quote its constitution, are as follows: "To encourage the education of boys and girls of the United States concerning the origin and development of liberty, co-operation and democracy; the economic, political and social problems confronting democracy to-day; the responsibilities of citizens in a democracy, and the ends and values of living." It understands by citizenship, therefore, not merely the possession of essential knowledge concerning the processes of government, not merely the possession of the necessary qualifications for suffrage. The old type of course in citizenship and civics no more accomplishes the purposes of the committee than does the course in English literature or Latin, conceivably not as much. The committee aims, by furnishing information, awakening interest, developing a critical spirit, and finally by the creation of a social consciousness, to give each potential citizen such an

equipment as will insure his intelligent use of the vote and intelligent participation in the various duties which, as a citizen, he may be called upon to perform.

THE FUNCTION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

The bulk of this educational work is to be done in the high school. Though the colleges have a responsibility which they are only now beginning to recognize to train their students in social sciences, their contribution to the body of intelligent citizens, important as it may be in the leadership which it provides, is necessarily limited in numbers. So, also, this group has no monopoly upon positions of great social and economic responsibility. Many of our most influential citizens, many who are occupying positions of great importance in the government of the country, received their last regular instruction in the high schools. Moreover, at the high school age, boys and girls are in their most impressionable years. Their social sense is awakening at that time, and may be either stimulated or checked. If this social sense is stimulated by the proper instruction, these citizens of to-morrow will be more ready to enter upon their duties in an intelligent and socially-minded manner.

The purpose of the committee, as has been said, is the encouragement of teaching concerning the fundamental political, social and economic problems confronting American democracy. These problems cover a very wide range. They naturally divide themselves into a number of groups, but this does not signify that particular courses are necessary for each group. The political problems for the most part have an economic basis. The tariff, taxation, public ownership, international trade, are fundamentally questions of economics. In this group will also be found wages, labor legislation, and transportation. Housing, conditions of employment, poverty, defectiveness, immigration, the race problem, and many others which are constantly confronting the individual citizens fall into another equally important group. The citizen must also interest himself in questions of public health, education, recreation, and various other municipal and state activities. Finally, material on fundamental ethics is suggested with emphasis on social relationships. This should include, if possible, some of the more important facts of individual and social psychology. In one way or another, not necessarily as a part of separate courses, all this material should find a place in the high school curriculum.

The committee does not propose to formulate a definite program of social studies for use in secondary schools, or to suggest revisions in the curriculum to permit this new line of activity. This important work it leaves to various professional organizations and committees which are already at work. It is frankly a temporary organization aiming to give publicity to programs which attempt to carry out its ideals; to make known successful courses in social subjects, numbers of which are already being taught throughout the country; to show how difficulties in this field have been successfully overcome. In addition to the publi-

cation of pamphlets and articles in educational magazines, it hopes to arrange state conferences of high school teachers who are interested in this subject. It seeks to encourage the consideration of courses in social studies at local, state and national conventions of teachers. Nearly all such meetings give some consideration to the problem of teaching "citizenship" or "Americanization," but often the subject is considered in a very narrow way. The committee seeks to emphasize the larger meanings of these words. It sees that progress in this field is hampered by the lack of a means for the rapid transmission of the best ideas, and so aims to expedite the interchange of all available information on the subject.

RESULTS.

Accomplishment in this work cannot easily be measured. But the committee feels that the more general introduction of courses in the social sciences will do much to remedy the deplorable situation in which this democratic form of government finds itself to-day. These courses, whatever their particular form, will in the first place furnish the fundamental facts and guiding principles, which are the essential bases of an intelligent participation in public affairs. Secondly, it is a sound psychological principle that knowledge creates interest. The ordinary citizen has never concerned himself with the problem of poverty, because he has hardly realized that it exists. A course in sociology or problems of democracy will create an interest in this and many similar questions. Thirdly, a knowledge of the facts together with some understanding of social psychology will develop the critical capacity which is necessary for sound judgments. If democracy is to mean the rule of the majority, this majority must be made intelligent. Finally, the necessary social consciousness for an enlightened attitude toward the public questions which the citizen must face can and will be developed.

A special reason for teaching citizenship at this particular time remains to be mentioned. Woman suffrage is now practically an accomplished fact throughout the country. Men have shown themselves unintelligent enough in the use of their vote; women, because of the fact that their lives are spent to such a large extent in the home, are not at present, it must be admitted, generally as well informed as the men. If, therefore, this large increase in the electorate of the country is to mean a real improvement in the intelligence of the vote cast, it is apparent that steps must be taken to inform and train the women for their duties. Various organizations are attempting to do this by a number of emergency methods. The real solution lies, however, in the preparation of the girls, as well as the boys, in the public schools for their duties and responsibilities as citizens of a democratic state. This is essentially the purpose of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship.

IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL STUDIES.

An interesting course in sociology is conducted in the Technical High School, of Oakland, California. In addition to the regular reading and class-room work in which Towne's "Social Problems" is used, each student carries on an investigation or study of some local social agency. The result of each individual investigation is brought before the class for suggestions and criticisms.

This close contact with social work in the community has stimulated and broadened the interest of the students in local affairs. In order to become better acquainted with conditions about which they were studying some students have worked during their vacations in various institutions.

An interesting letter of inquiry has been received from Monsieur Max Lazard, French representative at the International Labor Conference recently held in Washington. Monsieur Lazard writes: "I feel that education in citizenship is a very urgent need of my own country, as well as of all other western democracies."

One of the very few cases of opposition to a course in social subjects which has come to the attention of the committee is entitled to sober consideration. The teacher reports that this opposition is due to a confusion between the terms "sociology" and "sexology!" Could there be any better reason for the introduction of social studies into the high schools than this example of the appalling ignorance on the part of citizens.

Included in the list of supplementary reading of a sociology course in one of our high schools are Henry S. Harrison's "Qued" and "V. V. Eyes." Teachers do well to direct the attention of their pupils to such novels, in preference to those which are usually read. Qued, it will be remembered, owed his real social insight to an upsetting collision with a big Dane! For some people, an acquaintance with such books may prove quite as momentous an event. Some of Charles Kingsley's novels had a tremendous influence in awakening the people of a generation or more ago to a sense of their social responsibilities.

"Sociology, in the broad sense of the social sciences," writes J. Wesley Barton, Superintendent of Schools, Elk River, Minnesota, "should be made a requirement for graduation. The high school is the common man's college, and if the students fail to get training in these problems there, they will go without it altogether." Most of our citizens have gone without it!

One obstacle to the introduction of sociology and other social studies into the high school curriculum is the fact that some of our colleges do not give credit for these courses in meeting their entrance requirements. The committee wishes to take up this matter with the proper authorities, and would be glad to have any information concerning specific instances of this sort.

At the annual meeting of the Sociological Society, recently held in Chicago, a committee on teaching citi-

zenship in secondary schools presented its report. It is expected that a full account of this report will be given in a subsequent issue of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

Perhaps the pioneer article on the teaching of social studies in secondary schools appeared in the *Annals of the Academy of Political and Social Sciences* by Simon M. Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania, in 1895. Professor Patten wrote on "Teaching Economics in Secondary Schools."

Many teachers apparently are using the *Survey for work* in connection with their courses in social studies. In these days no textbook on these subjects can be kept up-to-date. The use of this periodical, which specializes in the field, not only adds interest to the course, but leads to an awakening of interest in current social developments which is likely to continue after the course is completed.

The night school is primarily an emergency method of education for reaching those who have not completed their day school course. While the emphasis in the citizenship courses, which are intended primarily for foreigners, is likely to be on the fulfillment of the requirements for citizenship or on the fundamental mechanism of American political institutions, it is interesting to note that some night schools are offering a series of lectures on current social problems. While the committee emphasizes more particularly the provision of courses for high school pupils, it is realized that valuable emergency work can be done in this way. Teachers of the social sciences can perform a real community service by offering such a series of lectures.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

In the teaching of citizenship in the high school, according to a principle proposed by a committee of the American Sociological Society, "the mere forensic exchange of ignorant opinion is to be deprecated in favor of the acquisition of copious and accurate knowledge."

That we are providing in our high schools increasing opportunities for the exchange of opinion regarding current events is a matter of common observation. Reports obtained recently by the United States Bureau of Education from 5,054 high schools reveal a large number of schools offering courses in current events. But these reports also show that increasing attention is being given by high schools to the acquisition of accurate knowledge.

Seventy per cent. of these 5,054 schools offer courses in current events. Doubtless many of the students and some teachers base their discussions upon information and opinion obtained from discussions in the home and from weekly news journals and daily papers. We are realizing more and more, however, that talk will not solve the social, economic and political problems of the country; that emotion combined only with opinion is insufficient. We are demanding

scientific study as a basis for information and judgment.

It is reassuring to find, therefore, that most of the schools reporting to the Bureau of Education seem to appreciate the value of a background of systematic study. All but 220 schools (4%) teach one or more of the social studies—i.e., civics, economics, sociology, social ethics and similar subjects.

Civics.—The number of schools teaching civics is 4,799 (95% of the total replying). Of this number, however, a small majority, 2,404, appear to be teaching the old type of civics which deals primarily with the machinery of government with little or no reference to the economic and social problems for the solution of which the machinery exists. This large group does not report any attention to the problems of poverty, crime and disease. The others, apparently, are considering some of the practical problems which the citizen must face. This is shown in the texts which are being used. Those most frequently reported are Boynton, Ashley, Guitteau and Hughes. All of these books contain some material dealing with modern economic and social problems. While it is true that hundreds of schools still use texts of the old type dealing with the lifeless machinery of government, it is believed that these texts are rapidly giving place to those of the new type.

Civics, the tabulation of replies shows, is taught in most schools (855) in the fourth year; in 341, the third year; in 118, the second year, and in 279 the first year. The subject is required by 1,110 out of 1,478 schools.

Economics.—Of the total replying, 1,824 (36%) teach economics. The texts most frequently named are Ely and Wicker, Burch and Nearing, and Bullock.

Economics is usually taught during the third and fourth years—in 625 schools the third year and in 1,065 the fourth—although 54 teach economics the first year and 75 the second. The subject is required in 697 out of 1,797 high schools.

Sociology.—What is especially encouraging is that 431 schools reported courses in sociology. Only 136, however, indicated recognized texts. A follow-up inquiry, therefore, was sent to these 431 schools asking for further information regarding the course in sociology. There were 288 replies. Of these, 33 presented information showing that the courses they were teaching could not properly be called "sociology;" 255, however, are unquestionably teaching courses in this subject. To know that 255 schools are actually engaged in teaching sociology indicates a rapid development of the subject during the last ten years. Probably other schools among the 10,000 not reporting are offering bona fide courses in this subject.

The texts named most frequently for sociology are Towne, "Social Problems;" Elwood, "Sociology and Modern Social Problems;" Burch and Patterson, "American Social Problems," and Tufts, "The Real Business of Living."

It is somewhat surprising to find that two schools teach sociology the first year and five the second. Most schools (226) teach sociology the fourth year.

Twenty-three teach it in the third year, and eighty-three others allow third-year students to elect the course. The subject is required in 56 schools, and in eight additional schools it is required in some courses. Among those cities whose high schools require sociology are the following: Philadelphia (William Penn High School); Spokane, Washington; Newark, New Jersey; Springfield, Missouri; Joplin, Missouri; Johnstown, Pennsylvania.

General Classification.—It is perhaps fair, for the purpose of this report, to classify as progressive schools those which teach the new type of civics (including a study of the problems of poverty, crime and disease), economics, sociology, any miscellaneous social study or any combination of these subjects. A list of such schools includes 2,430 (48% of the total number), distributed as follows:

Civics (new type) only	462
Economics only	22
Sociology only	1
Other single miscellaneous courses	2
Civics (old or new) and Economics	1,414
Civics and Sociology	87
Civics and one miscellaneous course	51
Economics and Sociology	10
Civics, Economics and Sociology	307
Civics, Economics and one miscellaneous course	48
Civics, Sociology and one miscellaneous course	3
Four courses	23

Total 2,430

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR TEACHING CITIZENSHIP BY HARRY H. MOORE.

The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship was formed at a meeting held in New York City, April 19, 1919. This, it will be remembered, is the anniversary of the battles of Lexington and Concord. And while the coincidence of date was entirely unintentional, the purpose of the committee is essentially to renew our allegiance as a nation to the ideals of liberty and democracy for which the Revolutionary fathers fought and bled. It is to awaken our boys and girls, the men and women of to-morrow, to their community responsibilities, even as Paul Revere roused the patriotic farmers of Lexington on that dark but momentous April morning.

In accordance with its program, which is outlined elsewhere, the committee prepared late in the spring of 1919, a pamphlet entitled, "The High Schools and the Present Crisis." Over 14,000 copies of this pamphlet, together with 10,000 reprints of an article by Dr. Thomas M. Balliet, which had appeared in the *New York Times*, were distributed to the high schools of the country. With the aid of the United States Bureau of Education, it conducted a questionnaire to determine the present status of the social studies in the high schools of the country.

Another meeting was held in New York, October 18, 1919. It followed a very profitable joint meeting of the committee with the Committee on Social

Studies of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. A simple constitution was adopted. Committees on Textbooks and Books for Supplemental Reading, on Program and Finances, and an Editorial Committee were appointed. Informal addresses were made by William D. Lewis, Daniel C. Knowlton and C. C. Robinson. The following officers were elected: Chairman, Thomas M. Balliet, Dean School of Pedagogy, New York University; vice-chairman, Daniel C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark, New Jersey; secretary, Harry H. Moore, Washington, D. C.

The committee has at present 71 members, of whom 28 are on the Executive Board. The following organizations are represented in the personnel of this Board: The Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools; The American Sociological Society; The American Political Science Association; The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, N. E. A., and The National Municipal League. Other organizations which have been invited to send representatives are the American Economics Association and the American Historical Association.

In addition to the officers, the following names appear on the Executive Committee: Roscoe L. Ashley, Thomas M. Balliet, J. Lynn Barnard, Charles A. Beard, Henry R. Burch, Arthur N. Cotton, Edgar Dawson, Thomas D. Eliot, Jessie C. Evans, William T. Foster, Ross L. Finney, Gertrude Gogin, Frank P. Goodwin, R. W. Hatch, S. B. Howe, Thomas Jesse Jones, Clarence D. Kingsley, Daniel C. Knowlton, Robert D. Leigh, William D. Lewis, Harry H. Moore, William F. Ogburn, C. C. Robinson, E. O. Sisson, David Snedden, Olive Thompson, E. T. Towne, and James H. Tufts.

The committee proposes to use the space made available in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for the description of successful courses, for the publication of notes concerning interesting developments in this field, for reports and criticisms of various articles and books upon the subject of social studies in the schools which may appear from time to time, and for similar purposes. It feels that with this arrangement, it enters upon a period of developing interest and increasing activity.

Library Equipment for History Classes

In order to stimulate a wider and more effective use of collateral reading in the teaching of history, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association has appointed a committee on the standardization of library equipment in secondary schools. This committee is making an extensive survey by means of a questionnaire to determine the history books available in high school libraries, the practice in duplicating titles, the books found most useful by teachers and pupils, the money expended for history books, methods of checking collateral reading, and kindred topics. The committee is eager to secure returns from as many schools as possible. With the hope that teachers who have struggled

with the problem will assist in furnishing the desired information, the questionnaire is printed below. Replies should be sent to the chairman of the committee, Mr. Howard C. Hill, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

QUESTIONNAIRE.

1. Name of school.
2. Name and position of person filling out questionnaire.
3. Number of pupils in school.
4. Number of pupils taking American history. Which year of high school?
5. How much time is devoted to American history? To modern European history? (Give in weeks.)
6. What textbook is used in American history? In modern European history?
7. Number of titles of books in school library available for collateral reading, including books of historical biography.
 - a. American history.
 - b. Modern European history.
8. List the books you have in duplicate and give number of each.
 - a. American history.
 - b. Modern European history.
9. Name at least ten books, if possible, which you have found most useful for: (a) intensive reading (study or information); (b) extensive reading (atmosphere or enjoyment, reading as distinguished from study). The list for extensive reading should include the books which are most popular with students.

American History.

- (a) Intensive reading. (b) Extensive reading.

Modern European History.

- (a) Intensive reading. (b) Extensive reading.

10. How much money is expended each year for history books by your school?

11. State your method of selecting books for the high school library. Do you cooperate with other departments, e.g., the English department?

12. Is it your policy to buy in duplicate? If so, will you fill the following blank with the proper number? We usually buy one copy for every _____ pupils.

13. Are pupils sent to the public library? If so, are books kept on reserve for high school use especially? Does the public library loan books to the school? Does the library furnish books in quantities of 10 or more?

14. How much collateral reading is usually done per week? Indicate by pages or otherwise.

- (a) American history.
- (b) Modern European history.

15. How do you check up your pupils on their collateral reading?

- (a) Notebook.
- (b) Card reports. (If these are used describe their character, or better, send samples.)
- (c) Quiz (oral).
- (d) Written tests.
- (e) Recitations.
- (f) Other methods.

16. Make any additional comment you wish on the question of collateral reading.

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AMERICAN HISTORY.

- Bailey, Carolyn S. Broad stripes and bright stars stories of American history. Springfield, Mass.: M. Bradley Co. 240 pp. \$1.25.
- Cope, Leona. Calendars of the Indians North of Mexico. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of Calif. 119-176 pp. (7½ pp. bibls.). 75 cents.
- Fewkes, Jesse W. Prehistoric villages, castles, and towers of southwestern Colorado. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 79 pp. 45 cents.
- Fisher, Charles E. The story of the Old Colony Railroad. Taunton, Mass.: C. E. Fisher. 196 pp. \$3.50.
- Guitteau, William B. Our United States. Boston: Silver Burdett. 694 pp. \$1.40.
- Holmes, William H. Handbook of Aboriginal American antiquities. Pt. I. Introductory, The Lithic Industries. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 380 pp. (5 pp. bibls.). 65 cents.
- Randolph, John, and Nicholas, Robert C. Considerations on the present state of Virginia; and considerations on the present state of Virginia examined by Robert C. Nicholas. N. Y.: Heartman. 83 pp. \$3.30.
- Ross, Earle D. The liberal Republican movement. [History of "mugwump" revolt.] N. Y.: Holt. 267 pp. \$1.80.
- Sabin, Edwin L. Building of the Pacific Railroad. Phila.: Lippincott. 317 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Sandburg Carl. The Chicago Race Riots, July, 1919. N. Y.: Harcourt, Bruce & Howe. 71 pp. 60 cents.
- Wagenseller, G. W., and Winey, C. R., compilers. Snyder County [Pennsylvania] Annals. Middleburgh, Pa.: G. W. Wagenseller. 364 pp. \$3.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

- Ginnell, Laurence. The Irish Republic; non-official statement prepared for submission to the Peace Conference. (Revised edition.) N. Y.: Friends of Irish Freedom. 139 pp. 25 cents.

EUROPEAN HISTORY.

- Betten, Francis S., and Kaufman, Alfred. The modern world from Charlemagne to the present time. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 429 pp. \$1.40.
- Cunningham, Charles H. The audiencia in the Spanish colonies, as illustrated by the audiencia of Manila, 1583-1800. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of Calif. 479 pp. (17 pp. bibls.). \$4.00.
- Dannenberg, Karl. The Revolution in Germany. N. Y.: Radical Review Pub. Assn. 31 pp. 10 cents.
- Davia, William S. A history of France from the earliest times to the treaty of Versailles. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 642 pp. (15½ pp. bibls.). \$3.50, net.
- Foerster, Robert F. The Italian emigration of our times. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 538 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Leary, Daniel B. Education and autocracy in Russia from the origins to the Bolsheviks. Buffalo, N. Y.: Univ. of Buffalo. 127 pp. (3 pp. bibls.). \$1.00.
- Robinson, James H. Medieval and Modern Times [revised to include the great war]. Boston: Ginn & Co. 790 pp. (17 pp. bibls.). \$1.72.
- Sayler, Oliver M. Russia, white or red. [Six months in Bolshevik Russia by American newspaper correspondent.] Boston: Little, Brown. 312 pp. \$2.50, net.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

- Butler, Bp. Cuthbert. Benedictine monachism. N. Y.: Longmans. 387 pp. \$6.50, net.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION.

- Baker, Ray Stannard. What Wilson did at Paris. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 113 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Barton, George. Celebrated spies and famous mysteries of the great war. Boston: Page Co. 345 pp. \$2.00.

- Beamish, R. J., and March, Francis A. America's part in the World War. Phila.: Winston. 608 pp. \$3.00, net.

- Chambrun, Col. de, and Marenches, Capt. de. The American Army in the European conflict. N. Y.: Macmillan 436 pp. \$3.00, net.

- Clark, Joshua R., compiler. Data on German Peace Treaty [presented to Com. on Foreign Relations U. S. Senate]. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 43 pp.

- Duncan-Clark, Samuel J. Pictorial history of the world war. Chicago: L. W. Walter Co. 415 pp. \$3.75.

- Ford, George B. Out of the ruins. [Account of German devastation in France and Belgium and progress of rehabilitation.] N. Y.: Century Co. 275 pp. \$1.50, net.

- Guaranty Trust Co. of New York. The effect of the war upon European neutrals. N. Y.: Guaranty Trust Co. 28 pp.

- Halsey, Francis W. The Literary Digest history of the World War. In 10 vols. N. Y.: Funk & Wagnalls. Subscription only.

- Hansen, Harry A. The adventures of the fourteen points. [Dramatic episodes of the Peace Conference.] N. Y.: Century Co. 385 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Knapp, Grace H. The tragedy of Bitlis; a chapter of Armenia's suffering. N. Y.: Revell. 160 pp. \$1.00, net.

- Laughlin, Clara L. The martyred towns of France. N. Y.: Putnam. 469 pp. \$3.50, net.

- Maurice, Sir Frederick B. The last four months; how the war was won. Boston: Little, Brown. 245 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Mixer, G. W., and Emmons, H. H., compilers. U. S. Army aircraft production facts. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 106 pp.

- Natl. Industrial Conference Board. Wartime changes in wages, Sept., 1914, to March, 1919. Boston: Natl. Indus. Conf. Bd. 128 pp. \$1.50.

- Works councils in the United States. Boston: Natl. Indus. Conf. Bd. 135 pp. (3 pp. bibls.). \$1.50.

- Palmer, Frederick. Our greatest battle (the Meuse-Arlonne). N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 629 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Requin, Lt. Col. Edouard. America's race to victory. N. Y.: Stokes. 211 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Simonds, Frank H. History of the world war. Vol. 4. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 368 pp. \$4.00.

- Souza, Charles de, Count. Germany in defeat; a strategic history of the war, fourth phase. N. Y.: Dutton. 231 pp. \$3.00, net.

- Usher, Roland G. The Story of the Great War. N. Y.: Macmillan. 350 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Worcester, Mass., Free Public Library. Some problems of the peace conference; a few select references. Worcester, Mass.: Free Pub. Lib. 7 pp.

MISCELLANEOUS.

- Beard, C. A., and Bagley, W. C. A manual to accompany The History of the American People. N. Y.: Macmillan. 68 pp. 28 cents.

- Bell, Henry T. M., and Woodhead, H. G. W. The China year book, 1919-20. N. Y.: Dutton. 762 pp. \$8.00, net.

- Bentwich, Norman de M. Palestine of the Jews. N. Y.: Dutton. 288 pp. \$3.00, net.

- Guerrier, Edith, compiler. The federal executive departments as sources of information for libraries. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 204 pp. 25 cents.

- Tyau, Min-ch'ien Tuk Zung, editor. China in 1918. Cambridge Mass.: Y. H. Sun, agent, 70 Norfolk Terrace. 138 pp. \$1.25.

BIOGRAPHY.

- Hunter, Francis T. Beatty, Jellicoe, Sims, and Rodman. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 204 pp. \$2.50, net.

- Bradford, Gamaliel. Portraits of American women. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 276 pp. \$2.50, net.

Howard, Annette R. L. Oliver Cromwell, warrior, statesman, and ruler. Chula Vista, Calif.: Denrich Press. 34 pp. 50 cents.

Connecticut [Colony]. The Fitch Papers, correspondence and documents during Thomas Fitch's governorship of the colony of Connecticut, 1754-1766. Vol. I, 1754-1758. Hartford, Ct.: Ct. Hist. Soc. 450 pp. \$3.00.

Briggs, John E. William P. Hepburn. Iowa City, Ia.: State Hist. Soc. 459 pp. \$2.00.

Johnston, Charles H. L. Famous Generals of the Great War. Boston: Page Co. 310 pp. \$2.00.

McArthur, Peter. Sir Wilfrid Laurier. N. Y.: Dutton. 183 pp. \$1.00, net.

Lefferts, Walter. American Leaders. Book II. Phila.: Lippincott. 354 pp. 92 cents, net.

Williams, Albert Rheijs, and others. Lenin, the man and his work. N. Y.: Scott and Seltzer. 202 pp. \$1.35, net.

Cheney, Albert L. Personal memoirs of the home-life of the late Theodore Roosevelt. Wash., D. C.: Cheney Pub. Co. 132 pp. \$1.50.

Russell, Thomas H. Life and work of Theodore Roosevelt. Chicago: L. W. Walter Co., 633 Plymouth St. 447 pp. \$2.25.

Trumbull, Jonathan. Jonathan Trumbull, governor of Connecticut, 1769-1784, by his great-great-grandson. Boston: Little, Brown. 362 pp. \$4.00, net.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS.

Augur, Herbert B. Government in Oregon [supplement to Forman's American Republic]. N. Y.: Century Co. 74 pp. 30 cents.

Buck, A. E. Administrative consolidation in state governments. Concord, N. H.: Natl. Municipal League. 639-667 pp.

Chafee, Zechariah, Jr. Freedom of speech in war times. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 29 pp.

Iowa State Teachers' Association. Educational Council. Report on the Teaching of Civics and the Training for Citizenship. Des Moines, Ia.: State Teachers' Assn. 62 pp. (bibls.).

Maxey, Chester C. County administration. [Based on a survey in the State of Delaware.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 203 pp. (6½ pp. bibls.). \$2.50, net.

Taylor, Hugh. Origin of Government. N. Y.: Longmans. 258 pp. \$4.00.

Wright, Herbert F., editor. The constitutions of the states at war, 1914-1918. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 679 pp.

LIST OF HISTORICAL ARTICLES IN CURRENT PERIODICALS.

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS.

Relation of History and Law as Displayed in Public Records. Hampton L. Carson (*American Law Review*, December).

The Primitive Roman Household. Norman W. DeWitt (*Classical Journal*, January).

Attitude of Ancient Rome toward Religion and Religious Cults. Elmer T. Merrill (*Classical Journal*, January).

Forces Behind Japan's Imperialism. Putnam Weale (*Current History*, January).

Japan and Korea. W. W. Willoughby (*Unpartisan Review*, January-February).

1919 and 1793. Joseph G. Pyle (*Unpartisan Review*, January-February). A comparison of the Russian and French revolutions.

Armenia's Struggle for Independence. W. D. P. Bliss (*Current History*, January).

Inner Aspects of China's Civil War. Felicien Challaye (*Current History*, January).

German Political Designs with Reference to Brazil. Loretta Baum (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, November).

How We Made the October Revolution (concluded). Leon Trotsky (*Current History*, January).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Life and Letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, III. Oscar D. Skelton (*Century, December*). Bagdad Under British Rule. (*Current History*, January).

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS.

How Americans Fought in Belgium. W. P. Cresson (*Current History*, January).

Wartime Feats of French Railways. Gen. G. Gassouin (*Current History*, January).

Constantinople Under the Germans, 1917-1918. Barnette Miller (*Yale Review*, January).

The Truth about the Fifth Army, March-April, 1918: Concluding Phase. Walter S. Sparrow (*Nineteenth Century and After*, December).

Failure of Germany's Baltic Raid (*Current History*, January).

The Confession of the Admirals. Archibald Hurd (*Fortnightly Review*, December).

The Victory at Sea, V. Rear Adm. William S. Sims (*World's Work*, January). Decoying submarines to destruction.

Ludendorff's Apologia. Herbert Sidebotham (*Atlantic Monthly*, January).

American Tradition and the League. Harold S. Paul (*Unpartisan Review*, January-February).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES.

The Kensington Rune Stone. H. R. Holand (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, December). Supporting the authenticity of the inscription.

The Military Organizations of the American Revolution. Grace M. Pierce (*D. A. R. Magazine*, January). IV. The organizations of 1776.

The "United States of America" and the "U. S. A." John C. Fitzpatrick (*D. A. R. Magazine*, January).

Life of Thomas Johnson, III. Edward S. Delaplaine (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, December).

Robert Smith and the Navy. George E. Davies (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, December). The work of the second Secretary of the Navy.

John Jay and Peter Van Schaack. Carl Becker (*Quarterly Journal of the New York State Historical Association*, October).

Colonel Silas Hedges: Pioneer of Western Virginia. Dora H. Goodwyn (*D. A. R. Magazine*, January).

British Ministers at Washington. A. H. U. Colquhoun (*Canadian Magazine*, January).

Historic Spots in Wisconsin. W. A. Titus (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, December). I. The portage of the Fox-Wisconsin rivers.

The Story of Wisconsin, 1634-1848. Louise P. Kellogg (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, December). IV. Territorial foundations and development.

A Forgotten Trail. James H. McManus (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, December). Made by wagon train, 1842, from southern part of Wisconsin to Lake Superior.

The Dreadnought of Newburyport and Some Account of the Old Transatlantic Packet Ships. Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, January).

Dramatic Scenes in My Career in Congress. Joseph G. Cannon (*Harper's*, December). I. Blaine and the Mulligan Letters.

Theodore Roosevelt and His Time. IV, V. Joseph B. Bishop (*Scribner's*, December, January).

Some Historical and Political Aspects of the Government of Porto Rico. Pedro Capó-Rodríguez (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, November).

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